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HOPE FOR CONNECTICUT'S DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN, A SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS'S GUIDE TO STATE AND FEDERAL PROGRAMS FOR EDUCATING DEPRIVED CHILDREN.

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INTRODUCED BY EXCERPTS FROM PREVIOUSLY PUBLISHED WORKS ABOUT CULTURALLY DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN, THIS DOCUMENT PRESENTS GUIDELINES FOR (1) IMPLEMENTING THE 1965 CONNECTICUT STATE ACT TO PROVIDE AID FOR THE EDUCATION OF DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN AND (2) ESTABLISHING THE TITLE I PROGRAMS CREATED BY THE 1965 FEDERAL ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT. A PART OF THE DOCUMENT BRIEFLY DESCRIBES SOME OTHER ASSISTANCE SOURCES, THE HIGHER EDUCATION ACT AND THE VOCATIONAL TRAINING ACT, AMONG OTHERS. ONE CHAPTER IS DEVOTED TO THE REQUIREMENTS AND TECHNIQUES FOR EVALUATING THE PROGRAMS ESTABLISHED UNDER THIS LEGISLATION. THE APPENDIXES CONTAIN BIBLIOGRAPHIES ON THE EDUCATION OF THE DISADVANTAGED AND ON EVALUATION TECHNIQUES. (NH)

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HOPE...

for Connecticut's Disadvantaged Children

A school administrator's guide to state and federal programs for educating deprived children

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Division of Instructional Services

Bulletin No. 98

"As Horace Mann said in 1848, no educated body of men can remain permanently poor. Our task is the education of today's children and youth who are living in today's world for the world of tomorrow. It is something we all strive toward by the best means we know . . ."

— Jean D. Grambs in *The National Elementary Principal*, November, 1964

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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HOPE...

for Connecticut's Disadvantaged Children

A school administrator's guide to state and federal aid programs for educating deprived children

Connecticut State Department of Education
Hartford, Connecticut 06115
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1 POVERTY AND THE LEARNER:

A Challenge to the Schools

The Problem in Perspective

*. . . by Benjamin S. Bloom, Allison Davis, and Robert Hess**

Very few problems in the field of education are as complex as the problems of cultural deprivation. An adequate attack on these educational problems requires that educational policy makers, curriculum specialists, teachers, guidance workers, and administrators have an appreciation of the many ways in which the social problems of our society bear directly on the development of the child and adolescent and influence the interaction between students and the schools. . . .

Throughout the world, school systems have developed elementary — and secondary — school curricula and programs which appear to work relatively well for a sizeable proportion of the students. Perhaps as many as one-half of the entering students are able to complete these programs successfully, if financial and other obstacles do not loom too large. These educational programs are increasingly the determiners of status and economic opportunity, and completion of a secondary-school program is rapidly becoming the minimal requirement for successful entry into the larger society. Especially in the highly developed nations, the individual who is not able to complete secondary school is denied admission to an ever increasing sector of the occupational system.

As long as there was ample opportunity in the economy for unskilled workers with a minimum of education, the thought and energy of educators could be directed to the continual weeding out of the scholastically less able and the selection of the more able to get more and more education and specialization. The lives and careers adversely affected by this selection process have not been a central concern of school people. So much thought and effort was directed to the final products of the educational system — the graduates of the system — that the underlying assumptions and methods of the system were rarely questioned.

Now we are in the midst of such basic social changes that it is appropriate to use the term "revolution." These social changes are affecting the entire fabric of our society and will increasingly affect all aspects of the educational system. What are some of the social changes which are so far-reaching?

First, a rapidly developing, complex, urban, industrial society which requires that functioning members of this society be highly literate, responsive to rapid changes in every area of life and work, and able to learn and re-learn complex ideas and skills as minimal conditions for economic security, social maturity, and independence.

Second, rising levels of aspirations of individuals and groups that have been long submerged or placed in marginal positions. These aspirations are for a larger share in the affluence of the society and for the education which will make this possible. Underlying this is the insistence on personal dignity and freedom and a search for a new sense of identity.

Third, increasing responsiveness of government to the needs and pressures of individuals as well as subgroups in the population. Social ills that might have gone unchecked for many decades previously can now be made central in the concerns of government and the courts.

Fourth, a rising level of affluence which makes further material goals for many individuals somewhat subordinate to other goals such as security and interpersonal relations. There is an increasing quest for personal identity and a set of values which will make life more meaningful.

These forces and changes in the society and culture will not permit any social institution to meet the new conditions and needs without modification, whether the institution be government, business and industry, religion, welfare, or education. It is these forces which require a major reshaping of our educational institutions.

It is difficult at present to determine the exact

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*This section is from the preface and introduction to *Compensatory Education for Cultural Deprivation* by Bloom, et al, based on working papers contributed by participants in the Research Conference on Education and Cultural Deprivation held in June, 1965, with the support of the U.S. Office of Education at the University of Chicago. Copyright 1965 by Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. Used by permission of the publisher.

way in which educational institutions in the United States will be reshaped over the next decade. It is likely that one major change will be a shift in the conception of education from a status-giving and selective system to a system that develops each individual to his highest potential. Also, almost all students in the more highly developed nations will need to complete at least secondary education.

It is clear that educational planning must begin with an analysis of the social changes taking place, the new tasks and responsibilities of individuals in a changing society, and the potential for education to prepare individuals for the new society While this is not the place to consider these long-term problems in detail, it is possible to indicate some of the new demands on education. Briefly, these are likely to emphasize some of the following goals for education:

a. There must be increasing emphasis on the higher mental processes of problem-solving rather than the existing stress on information learning. Only as individuals develop skill in the more complex types of thinking will they be able to cope with the many new problems they must face in their educational and post-educational careers in a rapidly changing society.
b. There must be increasing emphasis on the basic ideas, structure, and methods of inquiry of each subject field rather than on the minutiae of the subject. Individuals must be able to cope with the rapidly expanding and changing body of knowledge in each field and they must be able to find the ways in which the subject fields contribute ideas and tools of thinking necessary for the larger world outside the classroom.
c. More stress must be placed on "learning to learn" than has previously been true. Each person is likely to have to learn his own occupation a number of times during his career. Furthermore, learning must continue throughout life, if the individual is to cope with the changing nature of the society, the many new demands on him, and his own possibilities for self-actualization and fulfillment.
d. Increasing stress must be placed on those aspects of interests, attitudes, and personality which will promote the further growth of the individual, enable him to find satisfaction in the things he does, and help him to find meaning and fulfillment in his life. The effects of automation, the shorter work week, urban living, and the fast pace of change on the national as well as international scene require individual character development which will enable each person to live with himself and with others under conditions very different from those which have prevailed.

But these are the long-term changes which will require a new conception of the task of the schools, a new orientation to teacher training and school organization, and new developments in the curriculum, teaching methods, and views about the role of the student, the teacher, the administrator, and even parents. While we do possess some of the necessary theoretical and practical knowledge, we shall need new knowledge and new types of educational leadership to make these long-term changes effectively. In the light of the vast changes taking place, we are all culturally deprived. A new culture is rapidly emerging and the home and the school at present do not effectively prepare the young for adaptation to and, even, survival in this new culture. This task is so great that all of us must have some tendency to shrink from the great demands it will place on us.

But, there is a much more immediate problem. This is in some ways an easier problem to attack and it must be solved in the present. We cannot wait for a decade in which to gradually find solutions for this problem.

In the present educational system in the U.S. (and elsewhere) we find a substantial group of students who do not make normal progress in their school learning. Predominantly, these are the students whose early experiences in the home, whose motivation for present school learning, and whose goals for the future are such as to handicap them in schoolwork. This group may also be defined as those who do not complete secondary education. As a first estimate, we would include the approximately one-third of the high-school entrants in the nation who do not complete secondary school. This figure is higher in many cities where slum living and educational segregation enlarge the problem.

It is this group with which we are at present concerned. We will refer to this group as culturally disadvantaged or culturally deprived because we believe the roots of their problem may in large part be traced to their experiences in homes which do not transmit the cultural patterns necessary for the types of learning characteristic of the schools and the larger society.

A large proportion of these youth come from homes in which the adults have a minimal level of education. Many of them come from homes where poverty, large family size, broken homes, discrimination, and slum conditions further complicate the picture.

While this group does include such in-migrants to the urban areas as Puerto Ricans, Mexicans, and southern-rural Negroes and whites, it also includes many individuals who were born in the large cities. It also includes many individuals living in small towns and rural areas. The designation of cultural deprivation should not be equated with membership in an ethnic group, but should be defined in terms of characteristics of the individual and/or the characteristics of his environment.

Cultural deprivation should not be equated with race. It is true that a large number of Negro children, especially those from homes with functionally illiterate parents, are likely to be culturally deprived. However, it is likely that as many as one-third of the Negro children in the large cities of the U.S. are at least the equal of the white norms for educational development. It should, however, be recognized that dramatic attention to the problems of cultural deprivation has come from the civil rights movement, as well as from the rearrangement of whites and Negroes in the large cities with regard to place of residence and school attendance.

A central factor in the entire problem of education and cultural deprivation is the rapidly changing economy and job-distribution system which requires more and better education for the entire population. It is this new set of requirements which force changes in education to meet the special problems of cultural deprivation in various groups in our society. In years to come, we are likely to be grateful to the civil rights movement for its contribution in bringing about much-needed educational changes. To delay these changes any longer would result in crises (disaffected youth, unemployable adults, and an economically disabled group) of even greater significance than those crises brought about more directly by the civil rights movement.

The task of changing the schools of the U.S. from a selective system which rewards and finally graduates only the more able students to one which develops each individual to his fullest capabilities is a difficult one. This task was started with the development of free public education through the secondary level and the compulsory school-attendance laws. That the schools of the U.S. now do give opportunity for all is, with some exceptions, generally true. The inequalities in the opportunities for education are well established. However, what is now required is not equality of *access* to education. What is needed to solve our current as well as future crises in education is a system of compensatory education which can prevent or overcome earlier deficiencies in the development of each individual. Essentially, what this involves is the writing and filling of educational prescriptions for groups of children which will enable them to realize their fullest development. Compensatory education as we understand it is not the reduction of all education to a least common denominator. It is a type of education which should help socially disadvantaged students without reducing the quality of education for those who are progressing satisfactorily under existing educational conditions.

Ways and Means of Overcoming the Problem*

The goals of education for the disadvantaged are not different from those for other American children. The goals are to enable each child to play a constructive, respected role in society and to lead a life which to him will be satisfying. Any school must therefore know its pupils well enough to offer each child a program appropriate to him.

The circumstances of a disadvantaged life create serious educational deficits. The worst of these are stunted social attitudes, low intellectual and vocational aspirations, circumscribed experience, poor vocabulary, and difficulty in dealing with abstractions. The effort to compensate for these disadvantages and to replace each by its opposite is the basis of the school program relevant to the disadvantaged child. The principle of compensation is fundamental in education of the disadvantaged.

The first conclusion to be drawn is that the disadvantaged child should have certain educational experiences before he enters the first grade.

Nursery and Kindergarten Education. As infants and children grow, they become physically and emotionally capable of responding to a widening variety of situations. It appears that the greater the variety of situations to which they must adapt their behavior, the better they are prepared for the succeeding stages of growth, including school learning. A child deprived of large portions of such stimuli is likely to be deficient in learning and in readiness for it. For example, a child who has never seen a person read cannot understand what reading might do for him or what pleasure may be found in it. Such a child may simply fail to respond to the stimuli which would elicit responses in other children. He may be oblivious to constructive elements in his environment which are everyday matters for other children. For many disadvantaged children this relative lack of stimuli is a fundamental reason for the difficulties they encounter in meeting school demands. They are less well prepared for school and they find school more confusing and frustrating than do middle class children.

Adequate schooling for disadvantaged children, therefore, requires an early start. So that every child can save a fair start in the regular elementary school program, nursery and kindergarten education for disadvantaged children should be available everywhere at public expense.

The best age for commencement of nursery school education varies with the child and the home conditions. Certain learnings seem to be acquired most efficiently at certain ages. For example, age three or four seems the optimum time for learning to observe and focus attention and for learning basic patterns of speech and understanding. It is also an optimum time for learning certain skills of socialization, such as playing and working with other children, following directions, and being neat and clean. If the home environment fosters little progress in these directions, parents should be encouraged to send their children to a nursery school at age three or four.

Lack of love or care in the home can have disastrous impact on the child's self-concept, attitude toward the world, speech development, and general ability to learn. Some parents, whether disadvantaged or not, deprive their children of love and care. The reasons may include personality problems of the parents, marital problems, overcrowding in the home, or the need for parents to work outside of the home during the child's waking hours. Such situations are particularly common among the disadvantaged. In these cases, it is hard to believe that there is an age too young for nursery school experience; therefore the

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*This section is from pp. 7-27 of the Educational Policies Commission report, *American Education and the Search for Equal Opportunity*. Copyright 1965 by the National Education Association of the United States. Used by permission.

public should make provisions for this experience beginning in infancy.

A child who reaches elementary school age without having acquired certain skills and foundations for learning which other children have acquired will be slowed in his further development. But there is another important reason for trying to prevent such a gap from growing. It is that a seven-year-old who feels that he is doing a four-year-old's task is likely to react with shame and rebellion and to lose self-esteem, thereby limiting his progress.

The question whether preschool experiences should be designed to prepare a child for the first grade or to help him to develop and live well at his own age is, or should be, meaningless. The successful performance of development tasks at age two, three, four, and five *is* the best preparation for the first grade. The urge for the earlier acquisition of the learnings traditionally associated with the first grade should not determine preschool experiences, nor should a child who is obviously ready to progress further be held back for arbitrary reasons. Either practice would be poor education and show disrespect for the dignity of the individual. The secret of nursery education is the ability of the teacher to recognize and seize every opportunity to help each child take the next step.

On entering their children in a nursery school, parents should be encouraged to attend the class or a related learning or discussion session at periodic intervals. Much of the value of the nursery experience can be reinforced in the home if parents can be led to do this. If the parents of disadvantaged children make such a contribution, not only will the children benefit, but also the parents themselves will find that their interest in education and their self-esteem increase.

Finally, a strong word of caution is in order. The public school must look with hope and respect upon all children, including disadvantaged children who enter the first grade without the advantages of a nursery school or kindergarten experience. To succumb even slightly to a defeatist attitude is neither reasonable nor just. It is the duty of the school to provide the proper stimulation for every child.

Elementary and Secondary Schools. In the case of disadvantaged children, hostility toward education can easily arise on the basis of the typical discontinuity between home and school experience and on the basis of a deepening expectation by both the child and the teacher that the child will fail. The principle of compensation in education of the disadvantaged therefore calls upon the school to make of itself a congenial place — that is, a place in genuine contact with each child. The means to this end, once again, is attention to and concern for the individual child as a person important in his own right.

True individualization of programs provides an excellent opportunity for demonstration of the teacher's professional competence. Execution of a centrally determined syllabus, with all children more or less in the same mold, is stultifying for the teacher and, in particular for disadvantaged children, often fruitless.

Another important step in the direction of individualized instruction would be elimination of excessive emphasis on the remedial concept. The argument here is not semantic: all education is in a sense remediation, in that it is an attempt to fill in gaps. But education should rather be viewed as a permanent state of progress, the duty of the school being to provide the proper stimulation for any child, wherever he is intellectually and whatever his interests may be. Concepts that force teachers to see all children solely in relation to an artificial standard militate against this view.

The school should be so arranged that each child moves ahead at his own best rate, without fixed standards holding him back in learning or convincing him that he is retarded. Educators realize full well that no two children can be expected to learn the same things in equal time, but few schools have been structured to correspond with this fact. This failure has worked to the detriment of disadvantaged children in particular, in part because of the invidious comparisons made, in part because of the stiffness and formality of the typical school structure and expectations. Many children who learn slowly can learn well and in considerable quantity; the lock-step may deprive them of the time they need, and their failure to progress at the standard speed may deprive them of the will to try any more. Their learning may be reduced, rather than stimulated, by the insistence on grade standards.

Moreover, the grade-level concept is one reason for the frustration of teaching in inner-city schools. The removal of this barrier would not spare the teacher any work; it would only increase his opportunity to move realistically toward long-range goals. The learning level attained by most pupils at the end of a given number of years would very likely be higher than under the lock-step system, for the teacher could help them to progress more naturally and with less trauma.

Disadvantaged children may have a more pressing need than other children for constant evidence of their worth. They also may be less in the habit of working for distant results. For these reasons, teachers must help pupils not only to understand that much important learning takes a long time to acquire, but also to achieve a quick sense of accomplishment in learning. Then, each child will be able to respect himself more at the end of the day than at the start. Here again is an opportunity that only the individual teacher can provide, and that he can provide only if he enjoys considerable freedom of action.

At the same time, within the context of an understanding reaction to the apathy and lack of energy which all children — and especially the disadvantaged — at times display, teachers should never be satisfied when a child does less than his best. Without this criterion, respect for a child can be neither felt nor shown, and empathy becomes maudlin.

Every child should feel that there is at least one person on the staff who really cares about him and who likes to talk with him. This person will normally be his teacher or his counselor. The existence of such a relationship is a major contribution to individualization of the curriculum, for the relationship would be a major part of the child's school experience.

Teachers in all grades should give pupils many chances to discuss and investigate subjects of spontaneous interest to them. This is more than a good outlet. It is also evidence to the children that what is important to them is important to the teacher and to the school as well; and, whether the subject be jobs, dress, school discipline, dope addiction, sex, sports, or race prejudice, it often provides a strong basis for valuable motivated learning experiences in more traditional areas. Furthermore, the readiness to devote time to such subjects shows pupils that value and wisdom can emanate from themselves as well as from the teachers. This technique may be especially beneficial for the boys, who suffer even more than girls from enforced passivity.

For all children, reading is the most important academic tool, and the one in which failure causes the greatest discouragement. The schools must make an all-out effort in this area; they can do so in a manner fully consistent with any degree of individualization of the curriculum.

English is a foreign language for many disadvantaged children, and school English is virtually a foreign language for many others. Many disadvantaged children are highly vocal on subjects of interest to them, but their vocabulary is likely to be limited, and their pronunciation and grammar make their speech difficult to understand for most Americans. Many other disadvantaged children have had virtually no linguistic development outside of school. The development of abilities in oral English must therefore precede or at least accompany attempts to teach reading. It has been found wise, in teaching children to read, to begin with vocabularies that they actually use, with songs that they sing, and with rhymes that they use at play.

As a basis for individualizing instruction, teachers in all grades should acquaint themselves with each child's living conditions, including his home and neighborhood, and in particular should get to know his parents. The teachers should be on the lookout for fatigue, hunger, or a physical disability or disease among their pupils. Teachers should contact parents about these problems, and, if necessary, should take other steps to remedy them. Teachers often need the help of principals, attendance personnel, and school social workers in making these contacts in disadvantaged areas.

One of the pressing realities of which the school must take account is that few problems appear more immediate or more basic to the disadvantaged child than those associated with money. He learns early that money is important and hard to come by. He knows that many of the worst experiences he may undergo — including family insecurity, emotional upset, and even violence — are associated with lack of money. He tends to respond, therefore, to activities whose financial value he can perceive.

A school which is attempting to serve disadvantaged children consequently offers them opportunities both to earn and to learn how to earn. These opportunities fulfill two major obligations of the school. One is to treat the child with respect; the other is to help him take a normal and accepted place in adult life. A child whose motivations are oriented toward a job should be respected for that fact and should be helped to achieve his own goals. He will usually respond to this respect and will more readily look on the school as an environment which has meaning for him. He will also be helped to better himself in the search for jobs, thereby helping to overcome some of the economic, as well as some of the psychological, consequences of cultural disadvantage.

The role of the principal in the education of the disadvantaged is crucial. Where a depressed-area school is successful in educating children and retaining teachers, it is almost certain that the teachers have the leadership of an understanding, competent principal.

Principals should make it clear that they stand behind their teachers. A teacher should never fear to discuss controversial issues in class. He should have maximum assistance in procuring teaching resources which he may need. He should never need to fear for his safety or for the security of his property. He should feel as free to discuss any problem with the principal or supervisor as with any other concerned and sympathetic colleague.

Administrators should ensure the maximum independence for each teacher. The teacher must be free to teach his own class, to experiment, and to discard practices that prove poor. The only hope for an individualized curriculum lies in the freedom of the qualified and competent teacher to make his own decisions. In teaching matters, principals, and supervisors should regard themselves, and should be regarded, as helpers, not as bosses.

The principal should accord to teachers a role in planning what the school does. Not only will the teachers' enthusiasm be strengthened in this way, but the educational program will have the benefit of the entire staff's creativity. That principal is particularly to be commended who succeeds in achieving an atmosphere of respect for the views of new, young teachers.

Planning should provide for continuity in the educational program, with the teachers themselves at the forefront of such planning. For example, principals might arrange for junior high school teachers (and the principals themselves) to discuss mutual problems with staffs of feeder elementary schools. The same relationship may prove valuable between a high school and the feeder junior high schools.

A serious handicap in the education of the disadvantaged and of many other Americans is their tendency to know well only persons of backgrounds similar to their own. In such cases, a growth of intergroup contacts should be a basic objective of educators. All schools, including those which draw their pupils mainly from middle and upper classes — perhaps especially these — should do all they can to develop a rounded understanding of American life both as a valuable end in its own right and as a basis for a sense of community among all Americans. Success in this endeavor would have an important, lasting impact on the child concerned and on the rest of the society. Until widespread stereotyping and discriminations cease, many Americans will remain seriously disadvantaged. There is now a large-scale movement to remedy the misery in the cities, but it probably remains true that a great number of Americans are quite indifferent to the misery of their fellowmen and that many whites remain convinced of the inferiority of other races. Mere exhortation does not overcome this problem. But knowledge accompanied by experience is both an honorable basis for a change of attitudes and often an effective one. In addition, every educated American should possess knowledge of the way his fellow Americans live.

To this end, integrated facilities as well as improved curriculums can be valuable. Schools without teachers of a second race might arrange faculty exchanges to bring in teachers of another race. This would be of particular benefit in cases where Negro, Mexican-American, Indian, or Puerto Rican teachers are brought in, so that children can see them in a position of status.

Individualization of instruction implies a high degree of flexibility on the part of the teacher. The greater the professional attention available to each child, and in particular the more attention his teacher can devote to him personally, the more his program can be individualized. The problem of the disadvantaged will not be solved without investment of a generous measure of professional attention in every child. This requires that the teacher have time enough to work with the pupils individually. This costs money. Money alone is not the answer, but money is a vital ingredient, for there is an obvious correlation between class size and the possibility of individual attention.

Adult and Continuing Education. The principle of compensation applies also to adults who have lacked either the opportunity for adequate education or the understanding to take advantage of opportunities which were present but unperceived. To overcome these lacks calls for educational opportunities similar to those available for children: literacy, citizenship, and occupational training and retraining.

An adult education program of this sort would be important not only to the adults themselves but also to the success of the school program at the elementary and secondary levels. The same adult who is disadvantaged by his own educational lacks is likely to be the parent of the disadvantaged child. Anything he learns that improves his own prospects in life serves also to improve the prospects of his children.

As has already been noted, there should be regular parent-education experiences in connection with nursery school programs. Much parent education should take place informally through contacts with teachers and other school personnel. For example, acquainting parents with what their children are learning in school is often a successful, inspiring form of education. Parent participation in job exploration trips or other field trips is frequently valuable.

Full-fledged school programs should be available to persons who decide to return to school at any age, and

This book is one of many steps being taken by the people of Connecticut to bring new hope to the disadvantaged children of the state — to the 75,000 children of parents who earn less than $4,000 a year, to the children of broken homes, to those in homes of educational blight and cultural deprivation.

The 1965 General Assembly made $10 million available for projects to aid the disadvantaged in the state during the present biennium. In addition, the Federal Government made available over $7 million for the same purpose for 1966, plus an equal amount for 1967.

These funds are being spent prudently and resourcefully. Under the impetus of the State Board of Education, a many-sided thrust has taken shape in Connecticut to provide quality and equality in education for all children, regardless of race or color. This thrust merits our untiring support and effort.

—Harold J. Mahoney, Director, Division of Instructional Services,
Connecticut State Department of Education

disadvantaged adults should be encouraged to take advantage of these opportunities. But it is necessary that the schooling be appropriate to the student's age. A thirty-year-old fifth grader cannot be treated in the same way as a ten-year-old, and there may be little use in bringing a dropout back to the same program from which he once fled by quitting school.

A common need in education of disadvantaged adults is for speech therapy. Improved speech on the part of parents can help them vocationally. It can also facilitate their children's linguistic development.

In family life education or other education of benefit to parents, the disadvantaged — and others as well — are likely to respond less favorably to lectures than to concrete suggestions or informal discussions in which they can express their feelings.

For parents who are free during the day, it might be wise (if it is feasible) to schedule adult education activities during regular school hours. Children may be inspired by the sight of their elders finding it worthwhile to come to school.

Special attention needs to be paid to the economic handicaps of the disadvantaged. Even if no discrimination in employment existed in the United States, the employment opportunities of the undereducated would be meager, and increasingly so. The economy is developing in such a way as to place little premium on mere muscular energy in employment. In these circumstances the adult who cannot read is all but unemployable, and one who can read but cannot understand more than a child's vocabulary, equally so. As technology advances, jobs utilizing specific and easily learned skills become increasingly scarce. Nevertheless, the human needs of persons of limited ability remain as great as ever, and the American promise of equal dignity and respect requires that ways be found to help persons who are so grievously handicapped. To fulfill this promise calls for vocational education, frequently in rather low-level skills, and education to develop attitudes needed in the work situation.

In its treatment of adults the school should apply the same general principle it applies in the treatment of children: all persons are worthy of respect. Their disadvantages are to be regarded as deriving from the circumstances of their past or present lives. It is the business of the school and of the whole society to strive to overcome these disadvantages.

Education of Teachers of the Disadvantaged

To teach disadvantaged children effectively is to display the highest professional competence. Few jobs are more demanding, but few are more rewarding. To help a child achieve the human promise born in him but submerged through no fault of his own is a noble task.

The essential precondition for teaching disadvantaged children is a deep understanding of the causes of their behavior. The teacher must therefore possess both the general background needed for teaching anywhere and a knowledge and understanding of the circumstances of life for the disadvantaged.

Preparation of teachers for this service is a continuous process. Some aspects can be supplied in advance of teaching, but virtually all the necessary insights require consolidation and deepening after teaching has begun. The preservice program of teacher education should seek to develop in each student a sense of genuine respect and empathy for the children he will teach. To this end, he should become fully sensitive to the relationship between experience and character. He should recognize that every child is born with considerable potentials and that some children have great obstacles to overcome in order to develop them. He should know that under the proper conditions almost any child shows himself quite capable of learning. He should learn the importance of being approachable and of enjoying a close relationship with disadvantaged young people. He should expect the children to sense quickly whether he likes them and whether he believes that they can succeed, and he should know how crucial this judgment will be to his chances for success.

Teacher education should include observation and practice in teaching and otherwise working with the disadvantaged. The shock of the first day on one's own before a class is great enough; it should not be compounded by the shock of a first awareness of what it is really like to teach disadvantaged children. Fear of the unknown and lack of specific preparation are two of the greatest obstacles to successful teaching in depressed-area schools.

Teacher education should include experience in a disadvantaged community outside the school. Work in a community agency can prove an invaluable contribution to the student's subsequent work as a teacher. It is an excellent introduction to life in the community and to the contribution of agencies other than the school. It is an excellent way to learn to relate to disadvantaged adults and children and to learn that, although sharing a common subculture, the disadvantaged are individuals.

The ability to individualize instruction requires the overcoming of stereotypes. By definition, all disadvantaged children have severe cultural handicaps. But most have two parents, most of whom are interested in their children and most of whom earn their own keep. The overwhelming majority of these children are not delinquents. Many do well in the school. Every household has its own characteristics. Teacher education must prepare teachers to regard each child as an individual.

Teachers need a sufficient sense of security not to take personally the outbursts of a pupil, even if directed against the teacher himself. The only reaction likely to be helpful is one void of a need to retaliate or to defend one's self-esteem. Teachers must learn not to expect pupils to react in some preconceived, "proper" way. They must recognize, for example, that many disadvantaged children react by doing rather than saying and have not learned well to control their impulses.

Teacher education should include preparation in the history of minority groups in the United States and, in particular, of the civil rights movement. Teachers should learn to analyze the problems of disadvantaged children as social problems, not only as problems of psychological adjustment.

Every teacher should be acquainted with what is known about the psychology and impact of prejudice and about means for combating it, and teacher education should stress the insights of sociology, psychology, cultural anthropology, and other relevant fields.

Preservice education of teachers should also stress the need for research on the problems of cultural disadvantage. Although much has been learned about dealing with this problem, much remains to be learned, and no teacher in preparation should look on this field as one in which the final lessons have been drawn.

The college years may be a good time to interest students in careers in inner-city or other depressed-area schools. These are likely to be years of idealism. Efforts should also be made to recruit for the teaching profession persons of disadvantaged background. This may be done by encouraging high school students of disadvantaged background to help pupils who are having difficulty, by developing active future-teacher clubs, or by hiring high school or college students as school aides or community aides.

Education of teachers for this complex array of problems can probably never be regarded as finished. Successful teachers go on learning indefinitely, and their teaching is endlessly enriched by the experiences which come to them while teaching. Thus the in-service aspect of teacher education should receive appropriate stress.

In-service education should enable teachers consistently to improve their understanding of their pupils. Teachers should acquaint themselves with the living conditions of their pupils and try to relate their knowledge of sociology and psychology to those conditions. They might also undertake cooperative research with universities and other educational agencies. In these ways, teachers can learn better to see life the way their pupils see it and hence to decide what experiences are appropriate for those pupils.

Teachers should develop an acute awareness of the impact they can have on children for better or for worse. This awareness will increase their desire to do well, their abhorrence of having little impact, and their consciousness of the care which good teaching constantly demands. It will also serve to prevent them from focusing so strongly on the subject matter at hand that they forget the child.

School-Community Relations

A deep concern over the gross inequalities of opportunity in American society must motivate educators not only to do something *for* the disadvantaged, but to help the disadvantaged do more for themselves. Enlisting the help of those who need help most may lead to significant improvements in the community and in the schools. In addition, for those who need selfish reasons to do the right thing, it can be pointed out that there may be no other hope for integrating the disadvantaged into American life in an acceptably short time span.

The disadvantaged, and Negroes in particular, are increasingly impatient for practical results. If they do not sense progress, and progress at a sufficient rate of speed, the entire community will continue to suffer. What is intended here is not that the schools start a revolution, but they help direct a sweeping and urgently necessary social change along the most just, most hopeful, and least destructive paths. An honorable, active status for the disadvantaged as participants in the progress of change would itself be a large measure of progress.

One of the most serious obstacles to successful education in disadvantaged areas is the lack of communication between school and community. In a pathetic sense, the schools are not schools *of* the disadvantaged community, but schools *in* the disadvantaged community. A new mutual confidence and mutual understanding between school personnel and parents is presently needed.

The superintendent and principal should make it one of their greatest missions not merely to receive and take account of the community pressures that reach them but actively to seek out the views of as many citizens as possible. Genuine representatives of the community must be sought out, and not only those who are most acceptable from the standpoint of the middle class authorities.

This mission would obviously be difficult to perform. It would involve a time-consuming effort to help the inarticulate to speak, the ignorant to think, the apathetic to participate, the insecure to press their views. The results are not likely to be quick and miraculous, for the disadvantaged, like other Americans, cannot be expected to concoct magical solutions to their woes.

Nor can it be anticipated that the disadvantaged will from the start be masters of all the relatively complex techniques of influencing public policy through the normal, orderly channels of democracy. The disadvantaged have had little opportunity to develop sophistication in the social and political organization through which public pressures are brought. Moreover, even the most sophisticated and responsible leaders have often found the normal channels barred to them.

Yet it is of first importance that citizens control, within the limits of the law, the public schools, and this principle applies as much to disadvantaged citizens as to others. When people know that they have a true voice in molding the public institutions which affect their lives, they tend to work with those institutions rather than be hostile and apathetic toward them.

This approach would have the further inestimable advantage of developing local leadership. The leaders would no longer be outsiders who come in from day to day or now and then or the few insiders who succeed and move out. Moreover, to those disadvantaged citizens who know of no way but violence to express their frustrations, an effective alternative would be shown.

Communication between the people and the school board, regardless of the intentions of the authorities, is difficult when a school district is vast. Every school system should be so organized that those who control its administration are easily accessible to the individual parent. This implies decentralization of city systems. It also implies responsiveness of school officials to all citizens, so that the primacy of the influence of certain individuals and groups is not overwhelming.

One major test of the quality of a school is — Are parents made a part of the educational process? Do they feel that the expression of their desires and feelings is welcome there, or do they consider the machinery of education unapproachable and impersonal? Most disadvantaged parents are probably convinced that school is good for their children, and they want their children to succeed in school. But their conviction and desire are often vague; they may be unconcerned with the specific elements that make for success; and they may retain a bad taste from their own school experience. In addition, many disadvantaged parents have learned to fear public authority, including the school, and are therefore reluctant to have contact with it. Yet, until the parent shares the school's concerns, the child's education continues to be severely handicapped.

Some parents of all backgrounds are indifferent to the education of their children. But it is a serious mistake to act on the assumption that parents lack interest in their children's education. Such action may be a factor in producing the appearance of indifference and will merely consolidate any indifference that may actually exist. It is much wiser, in the case of the disadvantaged, to assume that what appears as indifference is actually confusion or fear and to seek to remedy the causes.

One measure to be recommended is frequent parent-teacher and parent-counselor meetings. A visit with school people should be a pleasant, useful event for parents; parents should not associate it with the anger of the authorities or a threat to their self-esteem. The specific suggestions made at such meetings can help the parents and teachers cooperate toward common ends. The general sense which the parents acquire that the school cares about their children can do even more to promote that cooperation. Meetings should be arranged at times convenient for both parties, and the parents must be made fully aware that their statements will be treated confidentially. Parents should feel that there is a school person with whom they can at any time discuss their concerns and who has sufficient status with the school system to be able to respond effectively.

In every encounter with parents, school people should be good listeners. It is true that parents can learn much at such meetings — what the school is trying to do, how their child is progressing, how they might contribute further to their child's progress; and how to discipline by means other than whipping or shouting. But teachers can learn much, too. They can learn about the child's likes and dislikes, about the parents' aspirations for him, and about methods that seem to work with him. Teachers should not assume that they know most; or even more than the parents, of what is worth knowing about a given child or about what should be done for his benefit. Such an open approach not only may result in valuable learnings for the teacher but will dispose parents favorably toward the school. The parents are likely to be deeply pleased when a real effort is made to discuss common problems with them.

Schools can help parents and themselves also by offering activities to parents and families. The school should organize weekend, evening, or vacation field trips with the help of, and for, children and their parents. It should remain open evenings, weekends, and during vacations for use of young and old, perhaps sharing costs with the recreation department of the community. The school should be a place to study, to play, to hold meetings, or to repair, construct, or sew, perhaps in family groups. It should provide a full-fledged summer school for all children who wish to enroll. In these ways it can be an inviting place, a place toward which the community develops warmth. Not only would the school's relationship with parents and children improve, but all would have an added opportunity to spend their leisure time constructively.

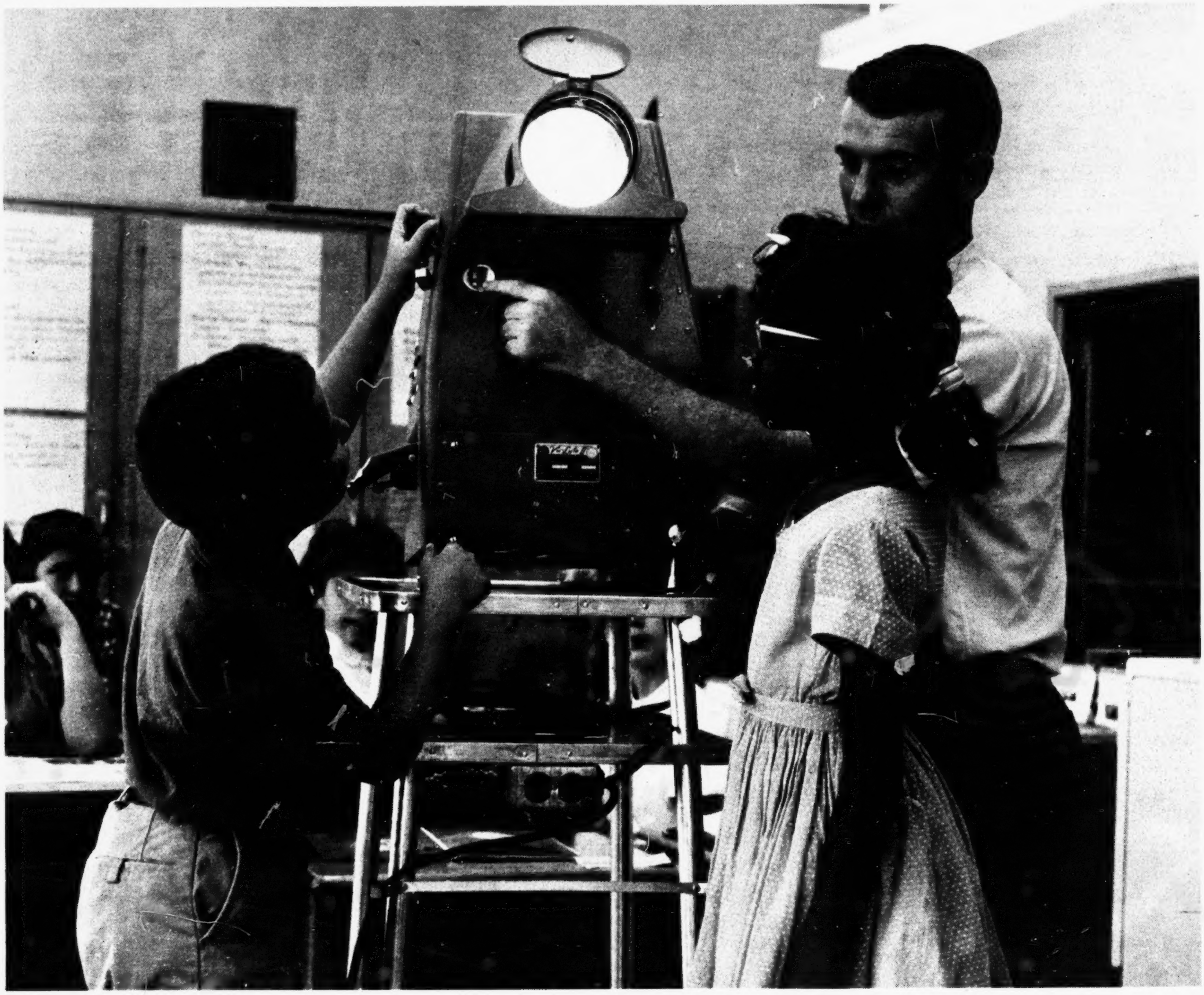
The school can improve its liaison with the community also by seeking the regular help of parents and pupils as volunteers or paid workers in the school. These assistants cannot take the place of professionals, but they can make many significant contributions to the work of those professionals. School personnel can train local citizens to serve as interviewers, homemaker helpers, homework helpers, community action organizers, links between school and church, escorts to and expediters in community agencies, or recruiters or coordinators for adult or parent education. For such work, the school needs local people who are respected by the community and whose attitude is not defeatist. In Puerto Rican, Mexican-American, and often Indian communities, the helpers should be bilingual. The most effective training is on the job, in tasks of increasing difficulty, with assistance always available at the trainee's request. One of the skills which should be acquired is that of respecting the confidences of clients.

The use of such help has considerable advantages for the school and the community. It relieves the school's manpower shortage. It develops local leadership. It turns persons who might otherwise be unemployed into productive workers. It strengthens the aide's self-respect. It develops allies for the school, being evidence of the school's determination to serve the community. It establishes links between school and the community in the guise of persons who relate well to the local citizens and who can help interpret the school to the people and vice versa. It presents an example of personal progress to pupils and parents alike.

Members of minority groups who have been successful in their careers may lend another type of assistance to the schools. Contact between them and pupils should be a common facet of the curriculum, though it is wise for the teachers to help both the children and the adults prepare for such meetings in order that maximum benefit may be derived. Over the long run these meetings can have considerable impact on the children's self-esteem and aspirations and on the community's support for the school.

The schools should also establish close relations with community agencies, for most of the problems of the community and of its individual citizens deeply affect the schools. A father's unemployment affects a child's aspirations and self-concept. A pregnant woman's toxemia or malnutrition may result in permanent brain damage and retardation in her children. Uncorrected dental or vision problems, obesity, or anemia may affect learning. Poor home conditions affect learning. Therefore, conditions in the community are inevitably of concern to the school.

Since the school is the agency which meets far more children and parents than any other, it should take the initiative in promoting interagency contact and coordination. Responsibility for community improvement rests on all agencies and citizens, but the school has a special responsibility and a special opportunity to discharge it. It can make of itself the focus of a community-wide effort at self-improvement.



2 THE DISADVANTAGED:

Getting to Know Them

A New Look at the Culture of the Underprivileged

*. . . by Frank Riessman**

Much is known about the underprivileged, and still more is controversial. While there are a number of images of lower socio-economic groups, one that is particularly popular today portrays the deprived individual as uncontrolled, aggressive, sexually loose, primitive, and insensitive. This image is frequently found in the writings of Tennessee Williams, and has been portrayed on the screen by Marlon Brando. It is the Blackboard Jungle picture. It is a dangerous image from the point of view of achieving constructive educational changes. A teacher going into a school in an underprivileged neighborhood with this picture in mind is likely to be pessimistic, cynical, and afraid.

While some deprived individuals are undoubtedly impulsive, disorganized, apathetic, violent, depraved, unintelligent — characteristics that frequently have been attributed to this group — these traits are not necessarily characteristic of the culture.

Moreover, focusing on the negative side to the exclusion of other, potentially healthy, traits, prevents teachers from developing good relationships with culturally deprived children and their parents. Consequently, we will attempt to emphasize some of the less observed, more positive themes of this culture, . . . (and to) present an over-all view of some of the outstanding characteristics of the culture of the deprived, some of which are in contradiction to each other. The contradictory traits result partly from the fact that the deprived individual is affected not only by his own group but also by the larger society of which he is also a member.

He is traditional, "old fashioned" in many ways, patriarchal, superstitious, somewhat religious, though not so religious as his wife. (*Note:* The deprived culture is essentially male-centered, with the exception of a major section of the Negro subculture which is matriarchal.)

He reads ineffectively, is poorly informed in many areas, and is often suggestible, although, interestingly enough, he is frequently suspicious of "talk" and "new-fangled ideas."

While there are numerous areas about which he is confused and lacking in opinion (e.g., a high percentage of "no answer" and "don't know" on public opinion polls), there are important spheres in which the deprived person has definite, intense convictions and, indeed, is difficult to move. His beliefs about morality, punishment, custom, diet, traditional education (in contrast to progressive education, which he firmly rejects), the role of women, intellectuals, are illustrative here. Many of these attitudes are related to his traditional orientation and they are held unquestioningly in the typical traditional manner. They are not open to reason and they are not flexible opinions.

Frequently, the deprived individual feels alienated, not fully a part of society, left out, frustrated in what he can do. This alienation is expressed in a ready willingness to believe in the corruptness of leaders, and a generally antagonistic feeling toward "big shots."

The average underprivileged person is not individualistic, introspective, self-oriented, or concerned with self-expression. It is unlikely that he will embrace an outlook that prefers moderation, balance, seeing all sides of an issue.

He holds the world, rather himself, responsible for his misfortunes; consequently, he is much less apt to suffer pangs of self-blame, and can be more direct in his expressions of aggression.

Since he sees problems as being caused externally rather than internally, he is more likely to be a poor patient in psychotherapy.

While desiring a better standard of living, he is

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*This section is reprinted — with permission of the publisher — from pp. 25-30, *The Culturally Deprived Child* by Frank Riessman. Harper & Brothers, 1962. In his book, Dr. Riessman notes that portions of this material were presented in a joint paper with S. M. Miller before the American Sociological Association, New York, 1960, and also appear in *Social Problems*, Summer, 1961, pp. 86-97.

not attracted to a middle-class style of life, with its accompanying concern for status, prestige, and individualistic methods of betterment. A need for "getting by" rather than "getting ahead" in the self-realization and advancement sense is likely to be dominant. He prefers jobs that promise security to those that entail risk. He does not want to become a foreman because of the economic insecurity resulting from the loss of job seniority.

He is not class conscious, and while he is somewhat radical on a few economic issues, he is distinctly illiberal on numerous matters, particularly civil liberties and foreign policy. He is not interested in politics, does not vote a good deal of the time, and generally belongs to few organizations.

With regard to democracy, he seems to have two sets of attitudes which, on occasion, conflict. He tends to favor the underdog and his relationships to people are marked by an equalitarian, outspoken informality. (*Note:* He is not equalitarian in his relationship to women as his culture is predominantly patriarchal. In the portion of the Negro sub-culture which is matriarchal, the male-female relationships seem more equalitarian.) He is strongly anti-communist, but he does possess a number of traits that have authoritarian potential: he likes strong leaders; he is prejudiced and intolerant; he is less likely to see the need for having dissident opinions.

He sets great store by his family and his personal comforts.

He has an informal, human quality of easy, comfortable relationship to people where the affectionate bite of humor is appreciated. The factory "horseplay," the ritualistic kidding, is part of this pattern. He emphasizes personal qualities. It is the man, not the job, that is important.

The neighbor who gets ahead is expected "not to put on airs"; he should continue to like the "old gang" and accept them despite his new position. An individual is expected to transcend his office. A foreman is an S.O.B., not because he is subject to stresses and demands on the job that force him to act harshly, but because of his personal qualities. Contrariwise, one of the top executives is frequently regarded as one who would help the rank-and-file if he had the chance because he is "a nice guy."

At the political level, the candidate as a decent, human person is more important than the platform.

The deprived individual likes excitement, likes to get away from the humdrum of daily life. News, gossip, new gadgets, sports, are consequently attractive. To some extent, his desire to have new goods, whether television sets or cars, is part of his excitement dimension. The excitement theme is often in contradiction to the traditional orientation. (*Note:* It is perhaps worth noting that different sub-groups may favor one theme rather than another. Thus, younger groups, and especially juvenile delinquents, are probably much more attracted to the excitement theme, are more alienated, and less traditional.)

He is pragmatic and anti-intellectual. It is the end result that counts. What can be seen and felt is more likely to be real and true in his perspective. His practical orientation does not encourage abstract ideas. Education, for what it does for one in terms of opportunities, may be desirable, but abstract, intellectual speculation, ideas that are not rooted in the realities of the present, are not useful, and indeed may be harmful. On the other hand, he may have an exaggerated respect for the ability of the learned. A person with intellectual competence in one field is frequently thought of as a "brain," with ability in all fields.

The anti-intellectualism of the underprivileged individual is one of his most significant handicaps. It is expressed in his feeling that life is a much better teacher than books — theory is impractical, "most big ideas that look good on paper won't work in practice," "talk is bull," intellectuals are "phony eggheads." This anti-intellectualism seems to be rooted in a number of the traits that characterize him: his physical style, alienation, antagonism to the school, defensiveness regarding his gullibility, and his generally pragmatic outlook.

The deprived individual appears to learn in what Miller and Swanson describe as a much more physical or motoric fashion. "Some people can think through a problem only if they can work on it with their hands. Unless they can manipulate objects physically, they cannot perform adequately. Other people (symbolic learners) feel more comfortable if they can get a picture of the task and then solve it in their heads. They may be handicapped in attacking problems that require a motoric orientation."*

This difference in approach or style of life is expressed in many areas. In religion, for example, the deprived individual is much more likely to enjoy physical manifestations of emotions such as hand clapping and singing, in contrast to the more dignified sermon. Miller & Swanson note also that when the deprived individual becomes mentally ill, he is more likely to develop symptoms such as conversion hysteria and catatonia, which involve malfunctions of the voluntary muscles. Middle-class individuals, by contrast, more often develop symptoms such as obsessions and depressions, which are characterized by inhibition of voluntary movements and by ruminative attempts to figure out solutions to conflict.**

Another reflection of the physical orientation is to be found in the deprived individual's admiration for strength and endurance, two of his principal economic assets. His great interest in sports, and admiration for prize fighters and baseball heroes, is one reflection of his attitude toward physical prowess. This interest may stem, in part, from a way of life that calls for considerable "ruggedness." The man who stands up well under these difficult conditions of life is well thought of. Furthermore, the status-giving attribute of strength is not easily usurped by other groups. This represents one possible line of achievement respected to some extent by other classes, although perhaps for different reasons.

Closely related to this physical bias is the emphasis

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*Daniel R. Miller and Guy E. Swanson, *Inner Conflict and Defense* (New York: Henry Holt, 1960), p. 24.
***Ibid.*, pp. 310-311.

on masculinity. The underprivileged boy's emphasis on masculinity derives, in part, from his patriarchal culture where the father is the "tough boss" of the home, and his authority is backed up by physical force. Even in the Negro sub-culture, the mother frequently plays a strong, masculine type of role, and is prone to stress and utilize physical force.

Talk, reading, and intellectualism in general are viewed as unmasculine – the opposite of action. Moreover, the school is often imaged as a "prissy" place dominated by women and female values.**

Characteristics of Deprived Children.*

In Connecticut, culturally deprived children may be found almost anywhere. They may be of any race or national background. Look to the city slums where poor Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and others dwell. They will be found there, of course, and also in our predominately white suburbs and country towns. Mark the run-down shack with the junked auto in the yard, or the trailer-home hidden in the woods near a state park. The children who need special help may be found there too.

What follows are some general considerations that must be kept in mind in planning educational programs for culturally deprived children. It is absolutely essential, however, not to regard these considerations as describing the characteristics of all children who come from homes located in neighborhoods which house low-income families. To do so would be to disregard utterly individual differences and to imply a homogeneity that does not exist. These children are as different from each other as children from any other group. No one statement applies to all; no one child's nature is such that it can be described by all the considerations mentioned.

These, then, are *general* considerations to remember about children whose early life lacks the stimulation, experiences, and relationships ordinarily provided for children whose family income is average or above average.

In the family and neighborhood. If they are Negroes, culturally disadvantaged children may be sensitive about their skin color because of the way society has treated them. If they are of Puerto Rican origin, they may be proud of their origin but resentful of society's general rejection of them. If they are others who live in poverty, they too are involved in the vicious cycle including lack of education and job opportunities which has perpetuated this rather hopeless existence.

They may live with fear – fear of physical aggression, disease, separation, eviction, homelessness, hunger, broken homes, family resentment for not contributing financially. They may live in a world they have to consider rather hopeless; they may not be protected from the crises of life. They may sit with the ill and the dying and listen to talk of unemployment and marital troubles. They hear talk of being an unwanted child. ("What we could have done if it weren't for Johnny.")

They may belong to a family with characteristics which include: Cooperativeness and mutual aid; avoidance of competition; little sense of self-blame; freedom from parental over-protection; children's enjoyment of each other's company; lessened sibling rivalry; no real sense of security; enjoyment of games and cars; quick tempers; a physical style of reacting.

They probably do not understand how the middle class lives and thinks. Their view of the "outside" world is frequently grossly distorted as the result of seeing it through TV, films, and other limited experiences generally. Their family "constellations" are frequently not the same as that of a middle class family. It may consist of a mother and the children and other relatives; a grandmother or foster mother and the children; mother and the children; but not necessarily the usual pattern of father, mother, children.

Personal behavior patterns. First off, bear in mind that culturally deprived children *are more like their peers from other segments of society than not.*

Nevertheless, they typically grow up faster. They live in the kind of environment where they are expected to act as men or women by 13 or 14 – and sometimes younger, depending on the family. Consequently, boys tend to act in terms of their concept of masculinity – perhaps by being more physically aggressive, more open sexually, more prone to use profanity than other youngsters. Similarly, girls attempting to act more adult are often bolder and more aware of sex at an earlier age than their middle-class peers.

Often the lives of the culturally deprived boys and girls are focused on trouble. They tend to respect the values of "toughness," "endurance," "outsmarting the other guy," of being independent (while still feeling the need for someone to depend upon). Commonly, they look for exciting ways to escape from the boredom of the everyday world. The opinions of their peers is unusually important as a determiner of their actions, and they often seek prestige by demonstrating their fearlessness, their toughness, their physical prowess, their ability to "con" people, their gift for smart repartee, their defiance for authority, and their willingness to seek out thrills and expose themselves to danger. They tend to divide people into "in-group" and "outsiders." Stealing from "outsiders" is okay as long as they get away with it. However, taking things from the "in group" is unacceptable behavior.

Yet they appear to be conscious of "right and wrong" and the rules of society, and although they frequently violate them, it is sometimes because of lack of understanding. *In spite of their unusual amount of norm violating behavior, however, they frequently make choices which keep them out of trouble.*

**Sexton discusses this issue in detail and refers to the "female school." See Patricia Sexton, *Education and Income* (New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1961), p. 278.

*The remainder of this chapter is an adapted and expanded version of "Considerations in Planning Programs and Instruction for Educational Disadvantaged Pupils," New London Public Schools, 1965. Mimeo, 4 pp.

In other respects, culturally deprived boys and girls usually have strong group loyalty. They can frequently function quite well in informal situations. They often have a good sense of humor. They are quite frequently emotional and tend to be noisy when happy. But no disrespect is intended when the group gets loud. And like all children, they thrive on respect.

Their attitude toward school – and some educational debits and credits. Pupils and parents may be "anti-intellectual" – but not anti-education. They may not *like* middle class thinking people (who have failed to help them improve their situation), but they frequently accept the importance of education. In fact, children and their parents have a much more positive attitude toward education than is generally believed. They have a feeling that somehow education may help them out of the closed poverty cycle in which they live.

However, these youngsters may dislike school because they are often treated as second-class citizens. They often face discrimination because of their educational deficits. They have a great deal of fear of being overpowered by teachers in situations where they do not accept the teacher's point of view. Pupils with disadvantaged backgrounds have a sixth sense about how people feel about them. They report that they can "feel" when the teacher does not like them as soon as they walk into a room. And it's been found that parents and pupils have become more responsive to and more involved in schools which have demonstrated a concern for their ideas, aspirations, and problems.

It must be remembered that there is a great deal of pressure on disadvantaged children to leave school. Their peers may taunt them and tag them as effeminate and their families frequently ask for their financial assistance. If they want to continue their education, they are very often emotionally in conflict with their environment.

Remember, too, that they often have been deprived of verbal stimulation. Adults around them may not really talk with them. They may never have heard a bedtime story. They may not have been helped at home to assess their skills. They may not have developed habits of planning and thinking out a problem. Consequently, they tend to attack problems directly.

Such considerations suggest some educational debits which disadvantaged children may have.

- They are not usually responsive to oral or written stimuli.
- They are not used to listening; they haven't been trained to listen; hence, they have trouble listening.
- Their time perspective is often different from that of the middle or high income group. Time for eating and sleeping is not set and may vary from day to day.
- They often have had limited experience with formal language. As a result, people sometimes wrongly think they are non-verbal.
- They appear to be relatively slow in performing intellectual tasks, not because they are dull, but because they have not learned to generalize easily.
- They frequently have difficulty understanding a concept unless they actually have something to do which shows what it means in some direct concrete manner.
- They may have difficulty with spatial relationships; hence, they may have trouble with numerical or geometric concepts.
- The older boys and girls may not have learned how to get a job, prepare for an interview, fill out a form, take tests, and answer questions.

On the other hand, culturally deprived children may have some distinct educational credits. They are often persistent about something when they develop an interest in it. They can be quite articulate in conversation with people they trust and with whom they feel comfortable about familiar subjects. They are often surprisingly articulate in role-playing situations. They usually have *hidden* verbal ability.

Learning modes. Culturally deprived children are frequently physical learners, rather than oral. They respond most readily to visual and kinesthetic signals. They are often content-centered rather than form-centered; externally oriented rather than introspective; problem-centered rather than abstract-centered.

At first these pupils will genesally learn by utilizing one-track at a time; that is, they persist in one line of thought, rather than in trying to handle multiple considerations. They frequently need additional practice in work of the pre-first grade level. At every level, they need immediate reinforcement. And rewards must also be immediate – they live very much in the present; "tomorrow" has little meaning for them.

Teachers must observe the following principles: (1) All learning is stimulated or hindered by the

Can Connecticut's

Just because a child of an impoverished home hasn't learned "school kinds of things," that doesn't mean he hasn't learned. Like any child, he learns from the things he sees and does. The trouble is, he has not seen or done many of the things children of more prosperous families take for granted. In a Project Head Start class in a small mid-western industrial town, a teacher recently prepared to read a story about farm animals to half a dozen children. To preface her reading of the story, the teacher asked:

"Do all of you like milk?"

The children nodded affirmatively.

Then she asked, "Where does milk come from?"

After a silence, a pudgy boy replied, "Store."

"A bottle," another boy volunteered.

Holding the book up for all to see, the teacher pointed to a picture of a cow and explained that this was the creature from which milk comes.

Indicating the cow's head, she asked, "What's that?"

A girl happily said, "Hih head."

"Yes, his head," said the teacher (avoiding the confusing topic of gender). "And what's this?" she teacher's feeling toward the pupil; and (2) all learning is influenced by how close the curriculum comes to the child's personal life and concerns. (This is why the teacher must be alert to ideas that come from the children themselves and also why it is good practice to "pitch" examples to them that meet their interests.)

Although these children will change slowly in certain kinds of cultural behavior, they can be taught. They need strong, well adjusted adult models. They have more trouble thinking the way a teacher does than do children from middle-class homes. And if teachers act towards them in a manner indicating they think they are dull, the children frequently behave as if they are dull.

The learning principle which recommends proceeding from experience to speaking, to writing, to reading is of critical importance to them. Pupils frequently see reading as a school activity only. Teachers must make them realize that reading can be a normal, agreeable part of both school and home life. They usually learn language through speech rather than reading. Discussion teaches them sentence patterns. They talk in what is termed a "swinging" manner only because they don't want to be called "squares." They generally need more practice in language readiness programs. Language laboratories and storytelling will help. While they have trouble with school word games, they apparently do quite well with word games they learn in their neighborhood. Rhythm may play a key role. They usually cannot learn language through rules or through drills on other people's sentences.

Above all, these children need a great deal of individual attention.

An assortment of school and classroom reminders. The first and most important initial goal is to help these children learn to *like* school and all that is associated with it, to trust the teacher, to feel secure and accepted in the class. This must be accomplished without being concerned about whether or not they learn traditional subjects or learn them in the usual manner. The suggestions that follow have this goal in mind.

1. The problem is first one of achieving classroom rapport. The teacher must truly respect and accept these children as worthwhile individuals. She cannot be naive or foolish or soft. She can expect a difficult initial period and that her acceptance by the children will come slowly.
2. Rules regarding fighting and destruction of property must be effected early and carried out consistently.
3. A carefully detailed plan to help the children understand the school's procedures must be initiated and carried out starting on the first day.
4. These children have usually had little experience in listening to adults talk for long periods of time and their attention may wander. The teacher must provide training in listening.
5. Role playing by children can help develop the teacher's understanding.
6. Fear of failure plays a dominant role in the deprived youngster's reaction to school activities. Material must be on their level; they must be encouraged and praised often. At first, the topics discussed with these children should be those that they choose as ones in which they are interested. Later, the teacher can introduce other topics. These then, may lead to the third

Schools Develop 'the Joy of Finding Out'?

asked, her finger pointing to one of the horns.

"Hih head," the girl repeated. The others stayed silent.

When they do answer a question, some children often use only a single, simple word, not a sentence, seldom even a phrase. The word usually describes a large, general category. The children are not trained to name fine distinctions among things. . . .

After the story the Michigan teacher said eagerly, "Now let's pretend we're going to make some vegetable soup." On a table she laid out wax models of things to eat.

"What are these?" she asked.

"Vechebas," a girl said.

"Vegetables," said the teacher. "What kind is this?" Silence. "It's a to__. You remember, it's a to__."

"Tomatah," said a boy, glowing with achievement.

"Tomato," said the teacher, matching his joy. "What's this?"

"Cair," said a girl.

"A carrot," said the teacher, then reaching for an ear of corn. "And what color is this?"

"Banana," said the same girl.

"This is corn," corrected the teacher. "But what color is corn? The color."

A boy said, "Red." That seemed good. Three others repeated, "Red."

"This is red," said the teacher, holding up the tomato. "But what color is corn?" Finally, she had to say "Yellow," and the children repeated "Yellow."

The inability to identify colors in only one example of the slow development of their verbal ability. It is a standard American complaint that four-year-olds are forever asking. "Why this? Why that? Daddy, Mummy, tell me why." Not these children. They do not wonder why. Curiosity, the marvel of observing cause and effect, the joy of finding out — which power the development of knowledge — have laid no deep mark on their lives. How is a child to learn to wonder if those about him have not demonstrated wonder by asking questions and giving answers?

— from *Education: An Answer to Poverty,* Office of Economic Opportunity/U.S. Office of Education, 1965. Pp. 6-7.

level — learning for its own sake.

7. Strength can be displayed to these children by a quiet firmness, consistency, and a determination to teach without being negative and rigid. It is a serious mistake to think and to function as though authority and respect can be commanded by physical power alone.

8. Pictures of Negro and Puerto Rican doctors, Nuclear physicists, journalists, and other people who have risen from poverty to become successful should be displayed in the classrooms to suggest higher horizons, instill motivation, and improve the child's self-image.

9. They need more varied experiences than their circumscribed life affords. For example, they need field trips to factories, terminals, new neighborhoods, museums, concerts, theaters, and other places that enlarge their view of the world. But they need to be prepared well in advance for all the trips and events with full explanations, pictures, etc. Without full preparation, these experiences lose most of their value.

10. The library should be a focal point of the school, attractive, easy to use, accessible to students at all times. Continuing instruction should be given in library use for research and general reading purposes. A wide variety of books must be available. Classrooms and libraries should be opened after school hours, giving children who come from crowded, noisy homes, the opportunity for quiet study. Teachers should be available for help.

11. Plays and stories are much more interesting when they can be carefully selected in terms of existing cultural interests of these groups. Their reality is their environment. Their school books must come reasonably close to that environment, or they may feel that we are telling them we do not consider them worthwhile.

12. A reading program with experiences which deal more directly with people and events arouse sympathy, curiosity, and wonder in these children. Texts which recognize the building of values should be used. They should have literature and reading showing that everyone can fail, have problems, have his dignity shattered, be frightened, and have enemies. And they should be told that such problems are frequently overcome.

13. The children may lack important basic test-taking skills, have had insufficient practice, and have little motivation. There may be an absence of rapport with the examiner who has different values. (It has been demonstrated that when rapport is improved, children improve enormously on standard tests, despite the cultural bias of these instruments.)

14. Games are a good technique for teaching and also discovering the ability level of children, since boys and girls are usually highly motivated during this type of activity.

15. A basic stimulating structure, combined with emphasis on physical learning, probably will be most effective. The present, highly competitive system of marks, exams, and comparisons of all sorts should be replaced by other types of incentives to learning. Marks and grades hurt more than they help. They discourage students from studying hard subjects and from taking good but tough teachers.

16. Intramural activities should be encouraged and planned.

17. Habits of study and learning should be emphasized and encouraged.

18. Imagination helps children get more out of their rather narrow existence. Teachers must work to stimulate and encourage children to try out new ideas. A questioning attitude must be reinforced and developed. Children enjoy considering such questions as "How would I change the world?" or "If I had three wishes," and teachers can learn a great deal about their children from their responses.

19. Holidays and birthday parties should be emphasized. A party for each child should be planned. Members of the family should be invited to the birthday parties.

20. Children should be encouraged to care for small pets and learn to be responsible for them.

21. The presence of Negro professionals in the school or during trips is especially important.

22. Nutrition appears to play an important role in preparing the children for continued learning activity. Each child's eating habits should be improved and provision may be made by the school for lunch or breakfast programs if necessary.

23. Writing assignments should be unstructured, associative. Subjects which are middle-class oriented are often a waste of time and invite negative responses.

24. In assigning writing activities, teachers should make a much closer analysis of the relationship of writing errors to speech and make much more use of reading as a device for improvement of writing.

25. Parents must be involved in many aspects of the school program. Transmitting the feeling that the parents play an essential role in educating their children is an important goal.

26. The setting up of clubs and groups could be used to help these children learn the importance of working with others, planning things in advance, verbal growth, and accepting the values of others. These groups should have adult supervision. The adult should be a person who is firm yet able to let these children reason and debate among themselves without forcing them towards what he would like discussed.

27. Teachers who have other abilities which are recognized as important by students should permit students to become aware of these. Athletes, modern musicians, and former champions in various areas will be greatly respected by students. Somehow, just being a teacher is sometimes not enough.

What it comes down to, as Bruno Bettelheim has said, "is that we must have very clearly in our minds what educational goals we have for these children. Should our goal be that these youngsters learn the important things in life: not to steal, not to hit people over the head, to be able to stand some small frustration and still go on with the task? Or should our goal be that they learn, like Lee Harvey Oswald, to read and write, no matter what?"*

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*Bettelheim, Bruno, "Teaching the Disadvantaged", *NEA Journal*, September, 1965. Page 12.

3 CONNECTICUT'S OWN PROGRAM:

Guidelines for Implementing the State Act

The 1965 State Act for educationally disadvantaged children and youth in deprived areas is designed to meet a pressing social need. In spite of the relatively high median family income, Connecticut has pockets of poverty, particularly in the larger urban communities. These neighborhoods have within them many people whose educational, occupational, and civic futures are in jeopardy. The alienation of these people from the traditional values of industry, initiative, and social responsibility — because of their inability to gain access to social and occupational success — is increasingly clear. The futility of their situation under current conditions breeds an attitude which again makes improvement more difficult.

The school is the major bulwark for stemming this trend. In a day when unskilled labor and physical prowess are no longer much sought, it becomes increasingly important to emphasize learning skills as prerequisites for future adjustment to social changes and pressures. Yet here in Connecticut we know that disadvantaged children enter school without the necessary readiness skills; they have not had the developmental experiences needed to prepare them for coping with the materials or the structure of schools. The consequence of this inadequacy is underlined by several factors — by the gradual but continual drop in measured intelligence as they progress through school; by the increasing incidence of truancy and behavioral difficulties each year; by the high dropout rate; by the unemployment figures.

The problem is so pervasive in nature and so serious in result that dramatic preventive and remedial programs are demanded if the American dream of opportunity for all is to be maintained. At present the disadvantaged child or youth in the traditional school setting is confronted with the daily fact of his failure, inadequacy, and hopelessness concerning his future. The school, meanwhile, finds itself unable professionally and financially to implement the procedures required to break this cycle and to present the disadvantaged child with learning experiences that open the doors to the future.

Principles of Operation

The following principles of operation will govern the interpretation and implementation of this Act to assist educationally disadvantaged children and youth:

Help with plans

1. The Connecticut State Department of Education has the responsibility for implementing the provisions of this Act. In addition, the Department will provide the necessary leadership and consultative services required to encourage and assist school districts develop worthwhile plans related to the Act's intent.

Continued consultative services

2. The State Department of Education will provide continued consultative services to school districts involved in projects established under this Act's provisions.

Where to apply

3. Applications are to be submitted by the superintendents of local school districts to the Office of Program Development of the State Department of Education. The Office of Program Development will maintain the necessary liaison with other divisions, bureaus, and consultants within the Department.

Early approval

4. Applications are to be received and approved by the State Department of Education in advance of the period during which the projects are to be implemented. In most cases, it is expected that approval of projects will be given prior to the beginning of a school year. Approval will be granted in sufficient time so that local school districts will be able to take advance steps toward implementing their programs.

Must aid the disadvantaged

5. School projects approved for financial support under the provisions of this Act must be related to assisting educationally disadvantaged children and youth. For the purposes of this Act, educationally disadvantaged children and youth are defined as, *those children and*

youth who need the assistance of special school programs designed to overcome the learning disabilities usually associated with children and youth living in low-income areas.

Fitting into local program

6. School districts are encouraged to develop programs under the purposes of this Act which are related to existing or planned educational programs in their school systems. The use of other sources of financial support to compliment the provisions of this Act and to develop appropriate relationships to the total school program will be encouraged.

Not a substitute for local funds

7. School districts are required to use the funds appropriated by this Act to increase the educational opportunities for educationally disadvantaged children and youth. These funds may not be used as a substitute for existing local support for school programs, but must be utilized for the development of new programs, extension of established programs, or as a supplement to financial resources secured by a local school district from other than local sources. A school district receiving support for the development of programs for educationally disadvantaged children and youth may secure funds under this Act to maintain programs when previous outside financial support is withdrawn.

To be evaluated

8. Projects proposed by local school districts will be evaluated with a recognition by the State Department of Education that different approaches to the same learning problem are justified. At the same time, the Department expects sound educational planning, based on the best available information regarding children and educational method.

Advances & renewals

9. Advances will be made to school districts on a state fiscal year basis (July 1 - June 30), with an application and plan required each fiscal year. Long-range planning, however, is encouraged, and reasonable assurance of renewal will be given if evidence indicates that satisfactory progress has been achieved with the project.

All expenses o.k. except . . .

10. Under this Act, all expenditures are eligible, except for rental of space and for construction of facilities.

Cooperation urged

11. Cooperation among school districts is encouraged whenever it appears that more significant programs might result through this arrangement.

Regional districts

12. Regional school districts must secure funds for the support of programs under the provisions of this Act through entitlements of local school districts comprising the region. If proper agreements between appropriate local school districts and a regional school district can be created for the establishment and operation of approved programs, either agency is entitled to receive funds through its proper fiscal authority.

Project goals

13. Projects to be supported by this Act should recognize that all educationally disadvantaged children and youth are not alike. In general, this Act is directed toward the creation of school environments and programs which consider the unique strengths and weaknesses of deprived individuals or groups. Programs proposed by local school districts must be concerned with the general educational skills, psychological attitudes, and physical condition of educationally disadvantaged children and youth living in a deprived environment.

Wanted: new ideas

14. New ideas are encouraged. Although many proposed programs may have pilot or demonstration value, this in itself is not a requirement when it is clear that established practice is the most effective innovation for a particular school district.

Disapproval & appeal

15. The State Department of Education has the authority to withhold approval of projects presented by school districts which violate the purposes of this Act or clearly indicate a contradiction of good educational practice. The Department will give written notification to the local school district of its failure to grant approval. In addition, the Department will establish a hearing agency to serve as a review body if the local school districts feel that the failure to approve their project is unjustified.

An Act Concerning State Aid for Disadvantaged Children

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE: To assist towns in extending educational opportunities to children who are socially, economically, or environmentally disadvantaged.

Section 1. Any town or regional school district shall be eligible to receive grants as hereinafter provided to assist in furnishing special educational programs or services designed to improve or accelerate the education of children whose educational achievement has been or is being restricted by economic, social or environmental disadvantages provided that such programs are designed primarily to meet the educational needs of children of families with annual incomes of less than four thousand dollars or of children receiving state aid for dependent children and further provided that such programs are approved by the state board of education.

Section 2. Any town or regional school district applying for such grant shall show that any funds so received are to be used for providing for such children special educational opportunities such as pre-kindergarten education; remedial programs; work-study programs; reduced class size; school library collections; special tutoring; programs for school dropouts; ancillary services; innovations or experimental programs approved by the state board of education and shall submit plans for said programs in such detail as the state board of education may require.

Section 3. The total amount of the payments to any town or regional school district shall not exceed an amount to be determined by multiplying the total amount appropriated under this act by the average of the percentage representing the ratio of the number of families in the community with incomes of less than four thousand dollars per annum to the total number of such families in the state and the percentage representing the ratio of the number of children in the community receiving aid to dependent children to the total number of such children in the state.

Section 4. Application for grants under this section shall be made to the state board of education in such form and at such time as said board shall designate and shall include the specifications and the estimated costs of such programs together with certification by the applying board of education that any funds so received shall be used for the purposes specified in accordance with the provisions of this act. Upon approval of any application by the state board of education, said board shall certify to the comptroller the amount of the grant for which the town or regional school district is eligible. Upon receipt of such certification, the comptroller is authorized and directed to draw his order on the treasurer in such amounts and at such times as certified by the state board of education.

Section 5. The state board of education shall periodically review and audit grant payments authorized to town or regional school districts in order to determine that the state funds received by the towns under this Act are being used for the purposes specified in the application. Within sixty days after the close of any school year, any town or regional school district which has received grants under this Act shall file a financial statement of expenditures in such form as the state board of education may prescribe. If the state board of education finds that such state funds are not being used or are being used for other purposes or are being used to decrease the local share of the support of schools, said board may require repayment of such funds to the state.

Section 6. The state board of education shall furnish assistance to the towns in planning and developing programs covered by this Act and shall provide guidelines to the towns for the determination of programs eligible for approval for grants. The state board of education is authorized to use one-half of one percent of the amount appropriated in this Act for said purposes and for other necessary expenses of administering the Act.

Section 7. The sum of ten million dollars is appropriated for the purposes of this Act.
Section 8. This Act shall take effect July 1, 1965.

Programs to be Supported

The criterion for the allocation of funds under this Act is that the local school district demonstrate the relationship between its proposal and educational procedures which are expected to prevent or correct educational disabilities among disadvantaged children and youth. In this regard, certain general types of programs provide (but do not guarantee) a structure for such improvement. The following list, then, is only suggestive. To assure approval, the proposal must demonstrate that the intended procedures are likely to result in desirable changes in behavior. Eight examples:

1. Pre-kindergarten programs where the emphasis is on the development of children and the prevention of learning disabilities. The proposal must indicate how the procedures to be used in such a program are related to these goals.
2. Remedial programs where special assistance is provided to disadvantaged children and youth who are suffering from learning disabilities. The proposal must show the appropriateness of the specific remedial interventions to the instructional goals; it is not sufficient merely to list personnel types to be hired.
3. Work-study programs which involve cooperative and integrated relationships between the world of work and school. The proposals must delineate the learnings expected and indicate how they are to be attained and evaluated.
4. Reduced class size which is tied to changes in instructional procedures that would be impossible in regular sized classes. The reduction of class size in and of itself is not basis for approval.
5. School library collections which are enlarged and modified to provide services specifically designed for the children and youth covered by this Act. The proposal must show the relevance of the improvement and change to the needs of these children and youth.
6. Special tutoring programs for school dropouts which are designed to improve the personal and occupational development of youngsters who have left school before graduation. The proposal should spell out the goals of the program and the procedures to be used.
7. Ancillary services which are specifically developed to provide assistance to disadvantaged children and youth — services such as guidance, health, psychological, social work, speech, or other related areas. The proposals must show how the services are to be specifically related to the needs of the children and youth covered by this Act.
8. Innovations or experimental programs not included in the prior headings which are designed to meet the goals of the Act. Such proposals may vary greatly, but schools submitting them should be able to show their educational soundness.

Allocation of Funds

The allocation of funds under the Act to any local or regional school district shall be made according to provisions in the law. (See Section 3 of the text of the Act.) Local school officials are advised to contact the Office of Program Development in the State Department of Education for information regarding the availability of funds for their district.

The United States Census of 1960 will be used to determine the number of families with income under $4,000 in a local school district (which is one of the factors in the formula for determining the allocation of funds). The number of children in a local school district receiving aid to dependent children (another factor) will be determined by the number of children in a local school district receiving this aid during October, 1964.

In the event that school districts do not choose to make application for funds under this Act or do not submit approvable proposals, remaining funds may be reallocated by the State Department of Education to deserving projects in other school districts.

Method of Payment

Application for grants under this section shall include specifications and estimated costs of programs for disadvantaged children and youth together with certification by the applying board of education that any funds received shall be used in accordance with the provisions of this Act. Upon approval of any application, the State Board of Education shall certify to the comptroller the amount of the grant for which the local school district or regional school district is eligible. Upon receipt of such certification, the comptroller is authorized and directed to draw his order on the treasurer in such amounts and at such times as certified by the State Board of Education.

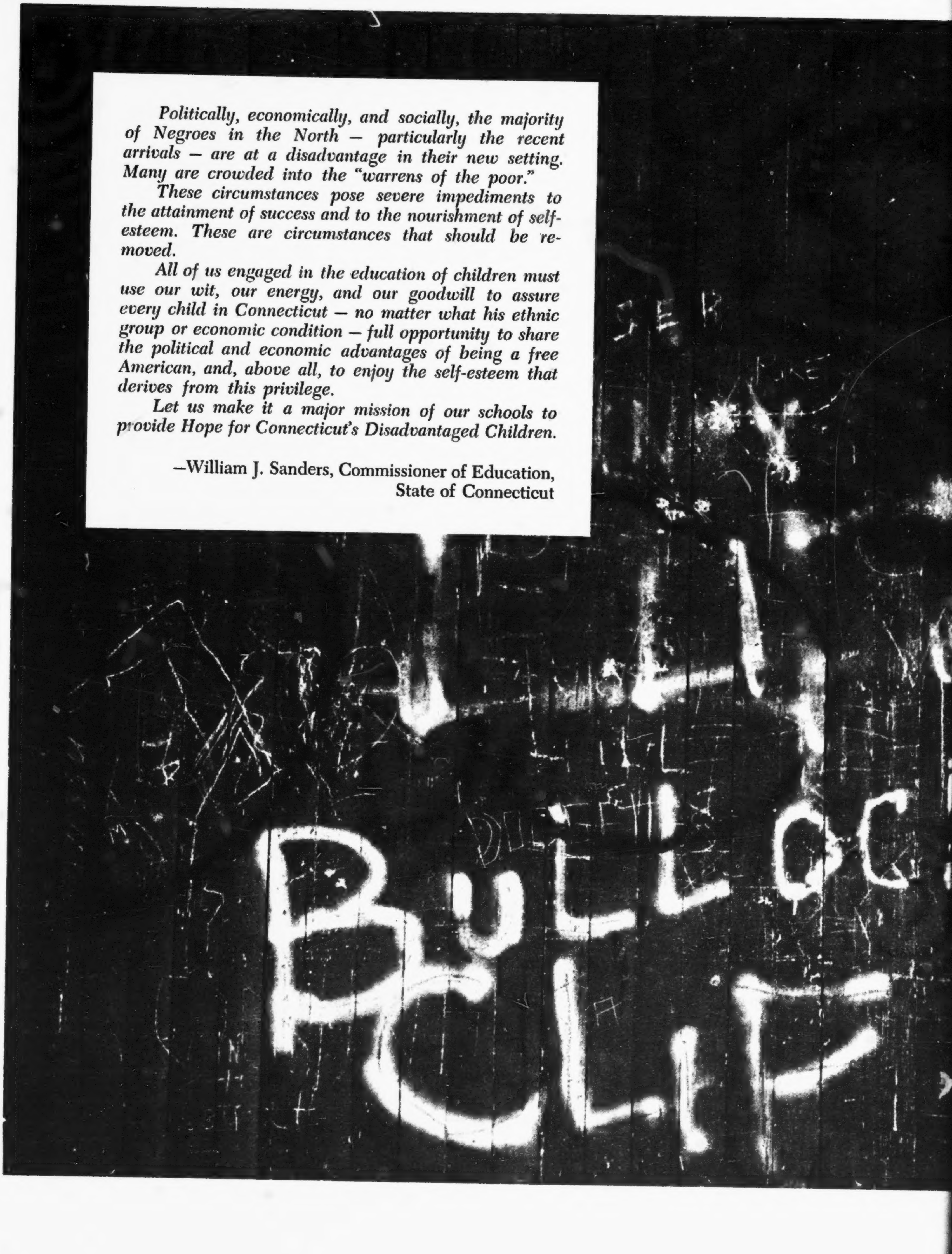
It will be the responsibility of the local or regional school district to provide the State Department of Education with an estimate of financial needs for the project by months of a fiscal year. The Department will on the basis of these monthly estimates provide the local or regional school districts with sufficient advanced payments to cover the costs of state-approved expenditures for the project.

Funds will be advanced to local school districts or regional school districts on a monthly, quarterly, or annual basis, depending on the nature and cost of the approved program.

Application

To secure funds under this Act, a local school district must accomplish the following steps:

1. The school district must present a proposal in



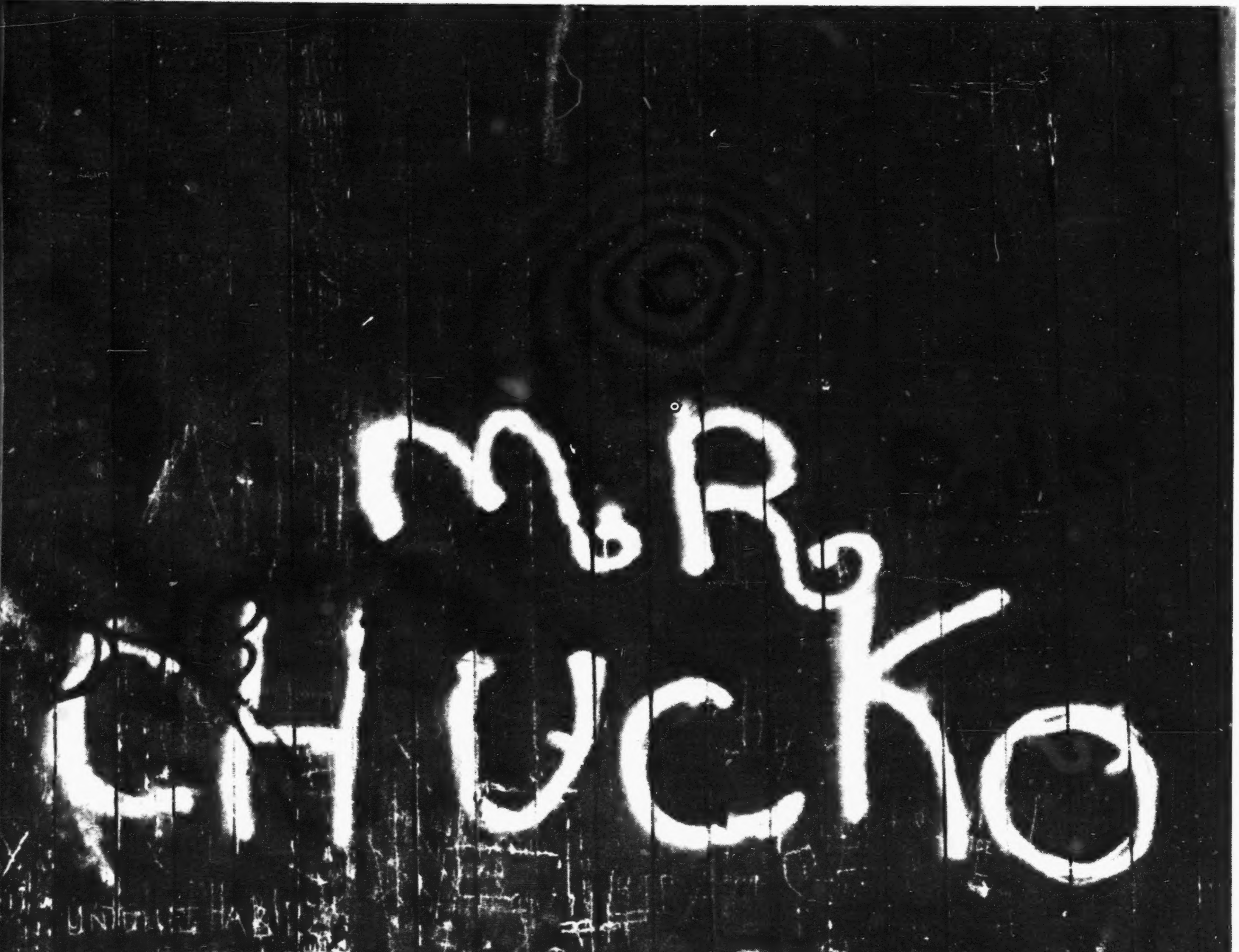
Politically, economically, and socially, the majority of Negroes in the North — particularly the recent arrivals — are at a disadvantage in their new setting. Many are crowded into the "warrens of the poor."

These circumstances pose severe impediments to the attainment of success and to the nourishment of self-esteem. These are circumstances that should be removed.

All of us engaged in the education of children must use our wit, our energy, and our goodwill to assure every child in Connecticut — no matter what his ethnic group or economic condition — full opportunity to share the political and economic advantages of being a free American, and, above all, to enjoy the self-esteem that derives from this privilege.

Let us make it a major mission of our schools to provide Hope for Connecticut's Disadvantaged Children.

—William J. Sanders, Commissioner of Education,
State of Connecticut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triplicate for approval to the State Department of Education describing the program to be initiated for educationally disadvantaged children and youth.

. When approval for the proposal is granted by the State Department of Education, forms will be completed by the local authorities giving necessary assurances that the funds received will be used for the approved program.

Proposals submitted to the State Department of Education must include the following information:

1. Purposes and Objectives of the Project
2. Description of the Project
    a. Precise statement describing the project
    b. Clarification of the statement describing the project
    c. Number of children and youth to be served together with criteria used for selection
3. Need for the Project
    a. Description of the need
    b. Studies or data used to determine the need
    c. Relationship of the project to a. and b. above
4. Plans of Implementation of the Project
    a. Procedural plan in chronological steps
    b. Staff requirements
    c. Relationship of the project to other relevant aspects of the school program
    d. Methods to be used in evaluating programs
    e. Plan for submission of annual summary evaluative report to the State Department of Education
5. Definition of Technical Terms
6. Budget of the project (Personnel services, equipment, instructional materials, and minor renovations)

> *"Being poor is not much fun. Most educators have never been poor, and if they have they like to forget it as soon and as completely as possible. It is quite American to want to look away from the grim face of poverty, because it is ugly, dirty, and hostile. The poor do not like to be poor. In a society which preaches equal opportunity for all, the poor are not exactly happy to be at the bottom of the heap. After all, they watch TV, too. Furthermore, it is particularly galling to be poor and to know — if you happen to be Negro — that it is probably not worthwhile making the gigantic effort to acquire the look and speech and habits of gentility because the white gentility is not about to welcome you with open doors, not to mention open arms."*
>
> –Jean D. Grams in *The National Elementary Principal*, November, 1964

4 ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965:

Guidelines for Implementing Title I

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (P.L. 89-10) is a landmark in educational legislation. It presents the State of Connecticut with the opportunity to develop imaginative programs to assist the deprived. At the same time it challenges the schools to improve the quality of education generally for *all* children and youth.

Title I of P.L. 89-10 offers support for programs which will be directed toward the solution of the most pressing educational problems. It provides both funds and framework for the encouragement of local initiative in bringing about programs and projects which can have dramatic effects upon the learning development of deprived children and upon the impact of the school as a social agency dedicated to the maximum fulfillment of each individual. Title I — along with other related pieces of federal and state legislation — has the potential for stimulating significant improvements, innovations, and changes in the educational patterns within Connecticut schools.

These guidelines, therefore, are intended to encourage a vigorous, flexible, thoughtful attack on educational problems by all school personnel. This will demand courage to innovate, minds open to new ideas, and the wisdom and creativity to build upon promising practices and relevant research. This legislation is not intended to provide "things for schools;" rather, it is designed to permit and to stimulate school personnel to start *doing*.

The Connecticut plan for implementing Title I of P.L. 89-10 revolves about the concept of local responsibility and local initiative within a framework of reasonable state stimulation, supervision, and assistance. It attempts to encourage and to insure that all school districts will give serious thought to future development within the provisions of this Title, and it guarantees that each school district's proposals will receive close and sympathetic consideration. Beyond this, the state approach insists that meaningful evaluation be basic to each effort, and it places emphasis on the desirability of regional endeavors where problems go beyond the "artificial" limits of a school district.

Within this context stress is placed on creativity and ingenuity in developing new techniques or more effectively using presently available techniques. The accomplishment of the Title's goals is predicted upon the State Department of Education's effectiveness in stimulating local initiative, providing assistance, and supervision and in determining the most appropriate and efficacious use of allotted funds.

The Title's Purpose and Operational Principles

Title I of P.L. 89-10 is headed "Financial Assistance to Local Educational Agencies for the Education of Children of Low-income Families and Extension of Public Law 874, Eighty-first Congress." The purpose of Title I, therefore, is to help break the poverty cycle. It provides funds to local school districts for the development and expansion of educational programs and opportunities designed to prevent or overcome learning difficulties usually associated with children and youth living in low-income areas.

The following are the principles of operation which govern the interpretation and implementation of this section of the Act:

Must develop plans

1. A school district requesting funds under this Title's provision must develop plans to implement ex-

panded or new educational projects which are designed to meet the special educational needs of educationally deprived children from low-income families.

Community action groups

2. School districts having community action groups established under the provisions of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 must develop their projects in consultation with the public or private non-profit agency responsible for community action programs.

Project area

3. A school district applying for a project grant shall designate a project area. This may include one or more school attendance areas with high concentrations of children from low-income families. *All attendance areas* of the school district must be ranked by an index or indices related to the presence of children from low-income families. In exceptional circumstances, a whole school district may be designated as a project area — but only if there are slight differences in the poverty concentrations in the several school attendance areas.

Determining project area(s)

4. To identify project area(s), a school district must rank all school attendance areas as to concentrations of low-income families. A percentage ranking is usually most equitable. However, if there are wide variations in the sizes of schools, a numerical ranking may be used — or a combination of both percentage and numerical if *that* is most equitable. The objective is to rank areas of high concentrations of low-income families. A school district should use a ranking index or indices in such a way that this objective can be reached most effectively. Areas eligible for projects must have concentrations at least as high as for the district as a whole.

Number of pupils

5. The number of pupils in a school district's total program should be commensurate with the number of pupils upon whom the district's allocation is based. Each project — if there is more than one — could deal with a part or all of this number. But, in general, the total number of different public and non-public should not be significantly greater than the number used to determine the district's entitlement.

Who may participate

6. A school district developing proposals must determine both the economic, cultural, and linguistic needs of deprived children in the attendance area and a suitable project emphasis. Once the project emphasis has been determined, all children within the project area in need of the project's service will be eligible to participate therein regardless of whether they are from low-income families or not or whether they are attending school at the time. The district's educationally deprived children outside the project area may participate in the project to the extent that their participation does not dilute the project's effectiveness or prevent educationally deprived children in the project area from enjoying the full benefits of the endeavor.

Project's size

7. The project's size should be considered in terms of its impact on each child involved. A "big" project in terms of cost, staffing, and so forth might be too small for the number of children it would serve. On the other hand, a far less costly project might be sufficient if it provided intensive services and extra, in-depth educational opportunities for the needs of a limited number of children.

Funds not a substitute

8. Title I funds may not be used as a substitute for existing local support for school programs. They must be used to develop new programs, extend established programs, or supplement funds secured by a school district from other than local sources. In addition, no grants may be made to a school district if its fiscal effort (including state aid for the current fiscal year) is less than the amount expended in the previous school year. A school district receiving support for the development of programs for educationally deprived children and youth may secure funds under this Title to maintain programs when previous outside financial support is withdrawn.

Wanted: New ideas

9. New ideas are encouraged. Although many projects developed for this Title may have pilot or demonstration value, this in itself is not a requirement when it is clear that established practices will be the most effective innovation for a particular school district.

Evaluation

10. Projects will be evaluated with a recognition by the State Department of Education that different approaches to the same learning problem are justified. At the same time, the Department expects sound educational planning based on the best information regarding children and educational method.

Renewals

11. Grants will be made to school districts on a yearly basis, with an application and plan required each year. Long-range planning is encouraged and reasonable assurance of renewal given if evidence indicates that satisfactory progress is being achieved with the project.

Related plans

12. School districts are encouraged to develop plans which are related to existing or planned projects which may be developed under other Titles of P.L. 89-10, other special purpose legislation, grants, or long-range plans of educational development in their communities.

Cooperation encouraged

13. Regional cooperation among school districts is encouraged whenever it appears that more significant programs might result by this arrangement.

Help with plans

14. The State Department of Education has the responsibility of encouraging and helping school districts develop worthwhile plans related to the Title's intent. Projects must be of sufficient size, scope, and quality to give promise of educational value.

Consulative services

15. The State Department of Education will provide continued consultative services to school districts involved in projects established under the provisions of this Title.

Where apply

16. Applications are to be submitted by local school superintendents to the Office of Program Development of the State Department of Education. This office will maintain the necessary liaison with other bureaus and consultants within the Department.

When approved

17. Applications will be received and approved in advance of the school year in which the projects are to be implemented. Approval will be granted in sufficient time so that local school districts will be able to take advance steps toward implementing their programs.

No discriminations

18. School districts will provide assurances and comply with the non-discrimination provisions of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

Additional Guidelines:

Non-Public School Pupils

Services to children

1A. Title I does not authorize direct grants or benefits to non-public schools. The services and arrangements provided for educationally deprived non-public school pupils should be designed to benefit the children rather than the school they attend.

School board's responsibility

2A. The responsibility for identifying areas of concentration and designing projects rests wholly with the public school board. It would be advisable, however, for the applicant to consult with non-public school officials so as to better determine the special educational needs of educationally deprived children enrolled in non-public schools.

Providing opportunities

3A. Before the State Department of Education may approve a grant, it must determine that the applicant has provided sufficient opportunities for the participation of non-public school educationally deprived children in project areas. Opportunities for these children to participate on the basis of geographical area must be substantially comparable to those provided to public school children.

Who participates

4A. To the maximum extent possible non-public school children who will participate in a project should be children living in the project area. In any event, the needs of educationally deprived children residing in the project area should determine the nature of the project or projects. Children who attend non-public schools in the project area but do not reside there may participate in the project if they have the same needs and if it would defeat the purpose of the project to segregate them from those who also attend such non-public schools but reside in the project area.

Degree of participation

5A. Each project application must show the degree or manner of the expected participation by educationally deprived children enrolled in non-public schools, so that the Department may judge the total program in this respect.

Special services

6A. Title I provides for the participation of non-public school pupils in special educational services and arrangements. Where special educational arrangements, such as dual enrollment, are provided in public schools for non-public school children, classes should, if administratively feasible, not be separated on the basis of the school in which the children are enrolled. Only special services and arrangements of a therapeutic, health, remedial, welfare, guidance, counseling or a similar nature may be provided on non-public school premises and then only when such services or arrangements are not normally provided by the non-public school. All special services or arrangements provided under Title I must, however, be specifically designed to meet the special educational needs of educationally deprived children. The extent of the opportunity for participation by non-public school children in Title I programs should be based on the numbers of educationally deprived children enrolled in such schools who are in need of the services so provided.

Salaries and equipment

7A. The law prohibits the paying of salaries of teachers or other employees of non-public schools or the construction of non-public school facilities. Mobile educational equipment, if necessary for the successful operation of project activities, may be temporarily placed in non-public schools but title to the equipment must be in a public agency. Such equipment must not be allowed to remain on non-public school premises any longer than necessary, and in no event after the end of the period for which the project was approved.

Inter-district cooperation

8A. If there are educationally deprived children who reside in the applicant's district but attend a non-public school in another town and

> if there is no practicable way for the applicant to provide opportunities for their participation in the project, the applicant may wish to consider entering into a cooperative agreement with the other town's school board. Under such a cooperative agreement, the local boards could jointly provide educational opportunities geared to the needs of the educationally deprived children in both districts who are enrolled in that non-public school.

Programs to be Supported

The criterion for securing Title I funds for programs, equipment, and facilities is simply this: The applicant must demonstrate the relationship between its proposals and the educational procedures which are expected to prevent or correct educational disabilities among deprived children and youth. Categories of approvable projects are as follows:

1. *Programs designed to improve instructional personnel working with educationally deprived children and youth.* Teacher aides, supervisory personnel, specialists for the improvement of instruction, consultants, and in-service training are examples of the types of services to be supported under this category.

2. *Programs designed to improve instructional programs available to educationally deprived children and youth.* Supplementary instruction and materials, tutoring, preschool programs, and enrichment activities are examples of the types of services approvable under this category.

3. *Programs designed to provide special ancillary services for educationally deprived children and youth.* Guidance services for pupils and their families, school health services, consulting psychiatric services, psychological services, speech services, and social work services will be supported under this category. Area centers for ancillary services will be encouraged and supported.

4. *Equipment needed to provide programs designed to assist educationally deprived children and youth.* Educational media, mobile learning centers, and special instructional aids are examples of the kinds of equipment approvable under this category.

5. *Summer programs designed to improve the educational opportunities of educationally deprived children and youth.* Summer instruction in reading, language skills and other subjects; cultural programs related to the arts; and recreational activities are the kinds of programs approvable under this category.

6. *Centers designed to provide special instruction and services for educationally deprived children and youth.* Special libraries, study centers, tutoring centers, and cultural centers are the kinds of programs approvable under this category.

7. *Experimental programs designed to assist educationally deprived children and youth.* Promising new ideas and approaches to learning will be approved if they relate to educationally deprived children and youth.

Application

A school district must apply for Title I project approval on forms which will be furnished on request by the State Department of Education. In addition to completing forms, a school district must forward six copies of its project proposal. The proposal must contain the following information:

1. *Purpose of the Project*
2. *Specific Objectives of the Project*
   (These objectives should be stated in terms of what the project is expected to accomplish for the pupils involved)
3. *Need for the Project*
   - a. Analysis of the school district attendance areas
   - b. Description of the need of deprived pupils (Special educational needs to be met by the project)
   - c. Procedures and studies used to determine needs
   - d. Relationship of project to b. and c., above
   - e. Evidence of consultation with local Office of Economic Opportunity Community Action group
4. *Description of the Project*
   - a. General description of the project
   - b. Operational plan for the project
   - c. Plan for involving deprived pupils attending non-public schools
   - d. Criteria to be used in selecting pupils for project services
   - e. Approximate number of public and non-public school pupils to be served
5. *Plans for Implementation of the Project*
   - a. Procedural plan (chronological steps of implementation)
   - b. Staff requirements
   - c. Relationship of project to other relevant aspects of the school program
   - d. Procedures to be used in evaluating each project objective. (These procedures should indicate the degree to which educational opportunities have been increased for educationally deprived children and youth as well as standardized achievement tests when they are appropriate for project objectives.)
   - e. Plan for submission of annual summary evaluative report to the State Department of Education
   - f. Plan for disseminating project results to the school district's entire staff
6. *Definition of Technical Terms*
7. *Project Budget*

Fiscal Administration

1. *Method of Payment and Financial Procedures.* In making application to the State Department of Educa-

tion for Title I funds, the local board of education shall include the specified information and estimated costs of its programs together with certification by the board that any funds so received shall be used for the purposes specified in accordance with the provisions of the Title.

Upon approving any application, the State Department of Education shall certify to the State Comptroller the amount of the grant for which the school district is eligible. Upon receipt of such certification, the Comptroller is authorized and directed to draw his order on the State Treasurer in such amounts and at such times as certified by the State Department of Education.

For projects totaling $10,000 or less, prepayment will be made in one payment for the total amount.

For projects over $10,000, prepayments will generally be made on a quarterly basis. The amount of each quarterly payment will be determined by the estimate of cash needs given by the superintendent of the local school district on forms furnished by the State Department of Education and by quarterly record of actual expenditures.

A local school district cannot make expenditures which deviate from their approved application *unless permission for such a change is secured from the State Department of Education.* A local school district making unauthorized expenditures can be required to make fiscal restitution to the State of Connecticut.

2. *Accounting at Local Level.* At quarterly intervals, the superintendent of schools must submit to the State Department of Education a current statement of project expenditures. Accordingly, the Department will authorize the State Comptroller to make additional payments. Normally, project funds should be expended by June 30. However, obligating documents may be issued during the months of July and August for the next fiscal year provided:

- they are permitted under the project approved
- are for services and activities to be carried out prior to August 31
- and are charged to the fiscal year in which the project was approved.

This will permit financing a summer project with grant funds available for the year in which the project is approved. Obligating documents for construction may be issued later than August 31 of the following fiscal year, but must be executed within a reasonable time considering the nature of the project.

In maintaining fiscal records, a school district must use the obligation basis of accounting. Thus, within 90 days after the end of the current fiscal year, the local school board shall make a *preliminary report* of expenditures for each project to the State Department of Education. (It should be noted that this report separates *project* and *facilities* accounts and distinguishes between *disbursements* and *unliquidated obligations.*) A *final report* for each project as of June 30 of the following fiscal year should be submitted shortly after that date, showing final payment of previously reported obligations.

The superintendent of schools shall submit with each preliminary and final report a certificate signed by him and the municipal auditor, stating that based on an audit of the records, the report is a true statement of receipts and expenditures for the project as authorized by the State Department of Education and that the expenditures were made in compliance with the current practices and procedures of the State Tax Department for municipal audits and with the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

3. *Record Maintenance.* Receipts, obligations, and expenditures for each approved project must be recorded in a special account. Supporting documentation for entries in the accounting records is very important. Each local district receiving a grant shall keep intact and accessible all records supporting expenditures (such as purchase orders, invoices, check records, etc.) for at least three years or until the State Department of Education is notified of a completed audit by the U.S. Office of Education, whichever is later.

The district shall also maintain an inventory of all equipment acquired with Title I funds and placed in the temporary custody of non-public schools. Such inventories shall be maintained until the equipment is discharged from the custody of the non-public schools and, if costing $100 or more per unit, for the useful life of the equipment. In addition, each district shall maintain inventories of all other equipment acquired with Title I funds which cost $100 or more per unit for the useful life of the equipment or until the equipment is disposed of.

4. *Audits.* Project expenditure records will be audited locally. Such audits may be done as a regular part of the local school audit procedures prescribed by state laws or regulations. Local audit programs should be developed in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards, with due consideration for federal policies governing the use of grant funds as well as state or local policies and procedures. The local audit report should include separate financial schedules or statements identifying receipts and expenditures applicable to these specific projects and appropriate statements certified as being true.

Reports and workpapers of local audits should be available for review by appropriate state and federal auditors and should include a description of the method and extent of tests, examinations, and other techniques used in making the required verifications.

Audits of project accounts when completed at the local level should be set out from the normal school audit, filed at the state level, and made available to auditors in the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

Normally, audits by federal agencies will be limited to the state agency level. However, the State of Connecticut shall have the right to audit the records of a local school district which pertain to funds received under Title I provisions.

An Overview: Sequential Development of Title I Programs

The following sequential steps indicate the order of development of Title I programs in Connecticut. They can be of help when used along with the guidelines in this chapter. They should not be used separately.

STEP 1: *LOCATE THE ATTENDANCE AREA FOR THE PROJECT*

A. The school district must be surveyed to determine the attendance areas with the highest concentration of low-income families.

B. A list of all elementary school attendance areas of the school district ranked in order of highest concentration of low-income families must accompany each Title I proposal.

C. The school district can choose the index it wishes for ranking its attendance areas. The following factors are suggested as they have relevance to poverty.

Income of families
Welfare data
Deprived minorities
Housing (grand list) data
Broken homes
Foster children
Free lunches
Health statistics (infant mortality, incidence of TB)

STEP 2: *DETERMINE THE PROJECT EMPHASIS*

A. To determine the nature of the project's instructional program, it is essential to determine the *needs of deprived pupils* in the attendance areas identified by STEP 1.

B. It is suggested that a sample of deprived children be identified and an analysis be made of their educational needs to determine the type of educational program to be established.

C. In identifying a sample of deprived children in the attendance areas to be analyzed, the following selection factors should be used:

Economically deprived children
Culturally deprived children
Linguistically deprived children

D. Typical *needs of deprived children* include, but are not limited to:

- Achievement significantly below normal in basic education skills
- Performance and production indicative of a low level of educational motivation
- Behavioral deviations as manifested by school conduct, truancy, withdrawal, etc.
- Lack of equal educational opportunity due to such deficiencies, for example, as limited curricular offerings

STEP 3: *DEVELOP THE PROGRAM*

A. Specific goals or objectives are drawn from an analysis of the needs described in STEP 2. Objectives should be clear, specific, and stated in such a way as to indicate what changes are expected as a result of the project.

B. The main services or activities are an outgrowth or spelling-out of the objectives and must be related to specified needs as identified in STEP 2.

C. The project may also include such supplementary services as required to assist children in overcoming the environmental conditions that would otherwise prevent them from benefiting to the fullest possible extent from their participation in the project. (E.g., psychological testing, counseling, parent education, etc.)

D. Procedures and techniques of evaluation must be determined to indicate the extent to which the special educational needs of educationally deprived children are met through the project.

- A provision for objective measurement of educational achievement must be included where appropriate.
- An evaluation of "before-the-fact" and "after-the-fact" data should be made.

STEP 4: *SELECTING CHILDREN TO BE SERVED BY THE PROJECT*

A. Once a program has been established in the manner indicated in STEPS 1-3, children or youth in the project area who are in need of this special program are chosen for services.

B. The number of children and youth to be served should be approximately the same as the number of children used to determine the entitlement of the local school district.

C. These funds are intended to provide categorical assistance for children and youth who have learning disabilities resulting from economic, cultural, and linguistic deprivation. If the needs of deprived children have been properly identified in STEP 2 and a suitable program is developed through STEP 3, any child in the project areas requiring this type of special assistance can be served.

D. Remember, it is essential that projects developed by local educational agencies should be of sufficient magnitude to be effective for the *most seriously* deprived children and youth. This in effect means that all students needing a service may not be accommodated. Project objectives should be focused on a *specific* group of children and youth requiring a *major* effort if they are to be successful in school.

5 MORE ON TITLE I:

Principles for Special Curriculum Areas

For the guidance of curriculum specialists in local school districts who are called upon to help plan Title I projects, personnel of the State Department of Education offer the "principles of operation" that follow.

Preprimary and Primary

1. Involve parents and other neighborhood resource persons in developing preprimary and primary programs for disadvantaged children. Recognize the need to reach out to parents, to respect and use the strengths of the culture from which children come.

2. Provide for lowering the adult-child ratio through the use of aides, volunteers, etc. Preferable group sizes:
   10-12 three- to four-year-olds — three adults
   12-15 five-year-olds — three adults

3. Provide for the involvement of the total school staff to allow for meaningful planning, transition problems, and appropriate curriculum plans for the disadvantaged in regular classrooms. Provide for opportunities and experiences through which children can learn.

4. Develop meaningful evaluation procedures and periodic evaluation to determine the extent of success of the experiences planned and provided for children.

—Harriet C. Nash
Consultant, Early Childhood Education

Elementary Education

Good educational practice for the disadvantaged learner is not essentially different in principle from that for other children except in a few distinct ways. Because many qualities are present in unpredictable amounts, the principles to guide school districts in planning elementary programs for disadvantaged children must fit a broad definition of disadvantaged. From the rapidly accumulating literature on deprivation, certain ideas appear over and over. They are as follows:

1. Disadvantaged children have extraordinary educational blanks that are usually the results of a limited background. These may be obvious, such as a lack of fluency in speech. Or they may be obscure, such as no preschool opportunities to be in other than the family group.

2. Disadvantaged children frequently have not had enough experiences typical to American middle-class childhood to have a base on which to build new concepts or ideas. They may never have handled a pencil or looked at a book.

3. Disadvantaged children reflect attitudes toward education that are the result of the apathy and, in some cases, outright hostility of their parents.

4. Disadvantaged children are easily discouraged by constant failure at school tasks. Persistent failure often leads to emotional upset and eventually to unproductive behavior.

5. Disadvantaged children frequently lack self-confidence to do school tasks. This lack is demonstrated in low vocational aspiration and a detachment from society and its problems.

6. Disadvantaged children need some compensatory education to ease the disassociation with the mainstream of American intellectual life. Because the learning nature of any child is deeply personal, the disadvantaged child in this respect is more like other children than he is different. He may be sharply different, however, in his intellectual development during the elementary school years.

7. Disadvantaged children are not carbon copies of each other. The deprivation may be severe in one area (e.g., deductive thinking) and not in another (e.g., symbolism).

8. Disadvantaged children can extract appreciable amounts from the regular program — if there is an effort made to pace the introduction of new information and skills instruction at a compatable rate.

In summary, the principles guiding school administrators in planning programs for elementary school disadvantaged children fall into these categories:

- the identification of special characteristic need
- the provision of compensatory education
- the support of positive attitudes

- and the recognition of the relative nature of deprivation.

—Harriet L. Gesler
Consultant, Elementary Education

Speech and Hearing

1. Identify children whose speech is substandard or dialectal and those with speech, language, and hearing disabilities through tests and evaluations given by appropriate personnel.

2. Carefully think through the objectives of the program and services to aid children in developing good communication skills and determine the organizational structure for attaining these objectives.

3. Place the major emphasis in the program on helping each child to develop his potential for acquiring and using good communication skills and abilities. Provide the child whose speech is substandard or dialectal with speech improvement activities correlated with "regular" classroom and school experiences. Provide the child with a speech or hearing disorder with services in keeping with his needs. Use techniques, practices, and materials recommended by leaders in the field.

4. See that the classroom teacher is aided in understanding the communication disabilities and needs of each child. Through conferences and demonstration teaching conducted by the speech and hearing clinician, see that the teacher uses daily class and school activities to help each child build good communication skills.

5. Provide appropriate materials and equipment in sufficient numbers to meet the instructional needs of children.

6. Aid parents through individual and group conferences and demonstrations of instructional practices to gain insight into their child's needs. Assist parents in providing a home atmosphere that encourages the use of newly acquired communication skills.

7. Include children who have similar communication deficits but are not economically disadvantaged in the program for developing speech and language skills.

8. Use standardized tests, judgments of persons associated with the child, and opinions of older children concerning his progress in making periodic evaluations of the attainment of objectives of the program. Measure the effectiveness of the program by giving attention to the child's

- ability to express himself in acceptable speech, voice, and use of language
- participation in class and other group activities
- change of attitude towards school
- social and emotional adjustment
- and relationships with the members of his family and their understanding of his problems.

Change the program when evaluative results indicate it should be changed.

—Geraldine Garrison
Consultant, Speech and Hearing

Language Arts and Reading

In considering projects related to the English language arts (including reading), the State Department of Education will keep questions such as the following in mind:

1. Is there evidence that someone has studied the educational needs of these economically deprived children?

2. If so, does this project give promise of correcting these educational disabilities?

3. Are children with similar educational disabilities *who are not economically deprived* included?

4. Is there provision for carrying skills instruction into usage and behavior?

5. What is being done to promote healthy attitudes and positive self-image among students in this project?

6. Are promising attempts being made to strengthen the home environment from which students in this project come?

7. What is being done in this project to honor the culture from which students in this project come?

8. Are provisions evident for drawing this project into the mainstream of the school's total educational program?

9. Are promising educational techniques and materials proposed for use?

10. Are sound and revealing evaluation procedures included that give promise of showing how well this project is working?

—Robert F. Kinder
Consultant, English, Reading

Mathematics

1. The development of a program should be preceded by a consideration of some of the observable characteristics of such students, such as: dislike of mathematics, short interest span, low reading ability in fundamental skills, history of repeated failures, etc.

2. The program should make use of techniques and materials that might help overcome the attitudes and inadequacies of the children that contribute to their lack of success in school.

3. A "remedial" program in the sense that students need only more of the same to reach grade or class level in all probability will not be a satisfactory solution to the problems facing these students.

4. Although groups of children having similar difficulties may be identified, their several problems will be different and therefore, as individualized an approach as possible is necessary.

5. Mathematics must be taught in a meaningful way. Consideration of needs must be given to the level of abstraction that can be handled by the individual student. Materials and techniques need to be related to real-life situations within the experience of the children.

6. Evaluation of each child's progress in terms of behavioral changes as well as measurable achievement goals should be an integral part of the mathematics program with adjustments made on the basis of the evaluations.

7. The teacher is the key to the success of any program. There is need for a competent, sympathetic and creative staff to develop and work with such programs. Although a few staff members may be directly involved in a particular program, as much of a team approach as possible should be used so that all teachers in a department or school become a part, in some way, of such a program.

—Elizabeth M. Glass
Consultant, Mathematics

Foreign Language Instruction

Children and youth living in a low-income area often come from homes where a foreign language is the chief means of communication. Our monolingual American society has refused to accept speakers of a non-English mother tongue. It has, instead, often forced them into a position where adequate education and unsuccessful social and commercial ventures can be attained only by suppression of the mother tongue and complete embracement of English.

This disassociation of the educational program from the fact of a non-English speaking family background can create an educational disadvantage which need not exist. The following principles ought to be observed in planning programs for educationally disadvantaged children whose mother tongue is not English.

a. Any measures taken of intellectual capacity or aptitude should not depend mainly upon verbal skill in English, since this will render scores invalid when a child's background has been in a language other than English or has been bilingual.

b. To give recognition to the child's mother tongue and to work for his best possible development, some concept and context learning should be taught through the mother tongue until he masters English sufficiently. At the same time the student should be developing further skill in his mother tongue, perhaps mastery of the "standard" rather than dialectic version of his language. This cannot be accomplished with this group by traditional, grammar-translation materials and methods.

c. If the proportion of "non-English-mother-tongue" pupils is much over 10 percent, special attention must certainly be given to this group in a special class, or undue loss may result in the time available to the English-mother-tongue pupils. The necessary special attention can probably only be given adequately by a trained teacher in English as a second language. As soon as non-English-mother-tongue pupils have the aural-oral readiness and sufficient reading ability in English, they should be placed in English-mother-tongue classes.

It is especially urgent that foreign language programs for educationally disadvantaged children and youth be based on modern, linguistically-oriented materials which are used to develop, initially, audio-lingual skills. There should be serious questioning of a need to develop a high degree of literacy in a foreign language in these children if it is at the expense of high interest which might have been developed in the aural-oral aspects of the language.

—Kenneth A. Lester
Consultant, Foreign Languages

Health & Physical Education-Recreation

In considering programs for the disadvantaged in the areas of health education, physical education-recreation, the State Department of Education will have questions such as the following in mind:

I. Health Education

1. What investigation has been made of home and family health patterns and values?

2. What objective evidence is available as to lack of health education?

3. How does lack of health education effect other educational problems?

4. How will proposed programs of health education differ from traditional approaches to meet the individual needs?

5. What techniques of evaluation will be used to determine if there is improvement resulting from the project?

II. Physical Education-Recreation

1. What objective evidence is available to identify physical education-recreation limitations? Is there objective evidence that supplements results of physical fitness tests, skills tests, knowledge tests?

2. Has any investigation been made as to leisure time interests and activities of the children?

3. What programs and innovations are planned to meet special needs?

4. What adjustments in regularly scheduled classes will be made to meet special individual needs?

5. What evaluation techniques will be used to determine if there is improvement?

6. What plans are being made to provide children with opportunities for social adjustment and opportunities to use skills in leisure time?

7. What indications are given that physical education is fully utilized for concommitment learnings such as social acceptance, leadership, cooperative action, emotional satisfaction, etc.?

—Ruth V. Byler
Consultant, Health and Physical Education

Safety Education

Disadvantaged children, as a rule, need safety education which is greater in amount and duration, different in many details, and more closely related to parental and community education than safety education required for most other children. These differences are due mainly to their more frequent lack of self-discipline, wholesome home and neighborhood influence, and concern for the care of equipment.

1. Safety education for disadvantaged children should be especially detailed and continuous because of the lack of out-of-school motivation and instruction.

2. It should include special applications to community hazards like abandoned buildings, junk deposits, and crowded streets and homes.

3. It should include special warnings concerning old and ill-cared-for equipment like automobiles, firearms, and electrical connections.

4. It should aim not only at individual and school safety but also at individual self-control.

5. It should also aim to encourage adequate home and neighborhood support through safety-education social workers.

6. It should also aim at community clean-up campaigns in order to eliminate neighborhood hazards.

7. It should include audio-visual instruction (which is frequently lacking in the neighborhood schools of the disadvantaged) in order to appeal to such children and also to their parents and communities.

8. Above all, it should be carried on by adequate safety-education personnel — more than in the neighborhood schools of most other children.

—Franklyn E. Learned
Consultant, Safety Education

Guidance Services

New federal and state legislation brings us nearer the goal of educating *all* youth to their highest potential. This is a challenge, not a burden, for the counselor who is totally committed to his profession. As the school develops new programs for the culturally disadvantaged, the counselor must redefine his role and accept new responsibilities.

The Counselor and Curriculum. Whitney M. Young, Jr., in *To Be Equal* states: "Meaningful curricula tailored to the employment future, student aptitudes, and training resources of the community are needed desperately. This is not an area for dilettantes and 'crash project' teams to stir about, 'settle the problem,' and leave. The curriculum lies at the very heart of popular education in this nation and challenges every school board as a matter of central policy.

The counselor should assume an active role in planning curriculum. As a key resource person in any committee dealing with curriculum change, he must be alert to individual learning needs of *all* youngsters. It is ironic that the person whose concern traditionally has been with diversity rather than conformity, with individuality rather than group stereotypes, has not been centrally involved in curriculum development.

In many systems, a wealth of information concerning students' abilities, aptitudes, and interests lies locked in guidance office files. This information should be unlocked, disseminated, and used.

A particular responsibility of the counselor, then, is to insure that curriculum committee members are aware that many standardized tests are not suited to the evaluation of disadvantaged children and youth. The counselor should take the lead in the construction of evaluative techniques and tools that are appropriate locally. Further, he will be expected more and more to become involved in designing creative systems for the storage of information about students and methods for the meaningful retrieval of such data. Certainly, with knowledge culled from his interaction with students, parents, and teachers, the counselor is in a most advantageous position to recommend changes in an involving curriculum once he interprets significant data in meaningful ways.

The Counselor and Commitment. The Connecticut State Department of Education Bulletin, *The Team Approach in Pupil Personnel Services*, June, 1955, states: ". . . The counselor shares the responsibility for the 'team approach' among the instructional, administrative and special services staffs. . . . He helps in the formulation and implementation of plans by which appropriate school resources cooperate in helping pupils. He adjusts his work with the pupil according to the plans worked out with these other groups. Where special resources are not available, the counselor endeavors to see that such help is provided and often seeks to secure the services of community and state resources."

The counselor working with today's educationally disadvantaged children and youth must be aware, as never before, of the rapidly developing resources at his command. He must be aware of legislation specifically designed to assist the disadvantaged. He must be aware of newly-formed education centers, work-study programs, community services. And he must share in the coordinating of these resources for the student's benefit.

He must also [illegible] in the evaluation of these special programs and resources. He should be familiar with every social agency within his community which deals with his students. He should actively represent the school in all joint meetings with these agencies, and he should know and be known to the people who — like himself — are interested in helping students help themselves. To be aware is halfway to win.

Only to the degree that a man is committed to a task will he succeed. Perhaps one reason for a counselor's being successful with the great middle or upper middle class segments of our society is that he is generally of the same class. Perhaps one reason for being less successful with the educationally disadvantaged is that he does not really know the educationally disadvantaged. He does not know the culture or the environment from which his students daily emerge and those aspects he does know, he does not like.

As Dr. Frank Riessman has stated, "The point is that you cannot have respect in a general way. To have genuine respect, you must know the culture and its positives, you must appreciate how these people cope with their environment, and how, in coping with it, they have built their culture."

But a counselor who is willing to commit himself can be effective in dealing with disadvantaged children and youth. He can be effective if he goes out into the community of his students. Nothing speaks louder nor more convincingly than actions, and the counselor who commits himself to knowing his students through knowing their environment, through meeting with parents, meeting with youth leaders, meeting with any and all interested agencies, will, as a consequence, be a better counselor.

—Robert W. Stoughton
Chief, Pupil Personnel Services

6 A ROUND-UP:

Additional Sources of Help for Educating the Disadvantaged

In addition to P.L. 89-10 and Connecticut's own Act for the Disadvantaged, school districts may take advantage of other opportunities for funding of programs. The summary that follows is from *Education: An Answer to Poverty*. (See Appendix A.)

HIGHER EDUCATION ACT. Under Title IV (student assistance), undergraduate scholarships are provided, through institutions of higher education and state programs, to qualified high school graduates of low-income families. The use of work-study and loan programs is encouraged to combine with or supplement scholarships.

Contact: *Director, Division of Student Financial Aid, Bureau of Higher Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION. The Manpower Training and Redevelopment Act offers vocational training and retraining to upgrade skills of unemployed and underemployed youth and adults who have insufficient education or who have been displaced by technological changes. Training is offered in areas in which there is reasonable expectation of employment. Special programs are available to youths 16 years and older who have been out of school for a year.

Under the Vocational Education Act, funds are available for state vocational education programs for persons in high school, for persons who have completed or left high school, for persons who are unemployed or underemployed, and for persons who have academic, socioeconomic, or other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in regular vocational education programs. Residential vocational schools, work-study programs, teacher-training, and research programs are included in the provisions of this Act.

Contact: *Division of Vocational Education, State Department of Education, Hartford, Conn. 06115.*

CIVIL RIGHTS INSTITUTES. Under Title IV of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, funds are available to school boards for in-service training and the employment of advisory specialists and for technical assistance, including consultants, to enable schools to deal more effectively with educational problems caused by desegregation.

Contact: *Equal Educational Opportunity Program, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT. Under Title XI (Institutes for Advanced Study) funds are available to institutions of higher education to conduct institutes for advanced study in order to improve the qualifications of individuals engaged in the teaching of disadvantaged youth. Short-term or regular session institutes may be held; usually summer programs predominate. The law defines such youth as those who are "culturally, economically, socially, and educationally handicapped." An institute may focus on teachers whose students are rural, urban, migrant, Indian, non-English speaking, and so forth.

Contact: *Division of Educational Personnel Training, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAMS. These programs provide financial support for local antipoverty campaigns in urban and rural areas, on Indian reservations, and among migrant workers. Community action assistance to education is limited to remedial and other non-curricular activities. Local antipoverty projects may include: preschool programs (such as Head Start), remedial reading, literacy instruction, in-service training on working with low-income children, employment counseling, homemaker services, educational supportive services, vocational rehabilitation, and health services.

Federal assistance depends on the community's determination to (a) mobilize its own public and private resources, (b) develop programs of sufficient scope and size that promise to eliminate causes of poverty, (c) involve residents of the areas affected and representatives of the groups assisted in developing and operating antipoverty attacks, and (d) administer and coordinate community action programs through public or private nonprofit agencies, or a combination of these. At present, it appears that the Federal Government will pay up to 90 percent of cost of local programs until August 20, 1967; after that assistance is on a 50-50 matching basis. Preferably, grants are made to broadly based, multipurpose local community action agencies. In some instances they may be made to single purpose organizations (such as school districts), where the project is a first building block in a contemplated overall program. Grants may be made to church-related organizations, if certain restrictive conditions are met.

Contact: *Office of Economic Opportunity, Room 306, State Capitol Bldg., Hartford, Conn. 06115.*

THE NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS. The Neighborhood Youth Corps provides full- or part-time work experience and training for youths, 16 through 21, enabling them to stay in school, return to school, or increase their employability. This program may be administered by an agency of state or local government (such as school districts) or nonprofit organizations. The Corps places youngsters in simple or beginning jobs in hospitals, settlement houses, schools, libraries, courts, parks, playgrounds, and so forth. Corps workers must not displace other regular employees or impair existing contracts for services. At present, it appears that the Federal government will pay up to 90 percent of local program cost until August 20, 1967; after that, assistance is on a 50-50 matching basis.

Contact: *Neighborhood Youth Corps, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20506.*

VISTA. Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA) provides an opportunity for those 18 and over to join the War on Poverty. Enrollees work with migrant laborers; on Indian reservations; in urban and rural community action programs; in slum areas, hospitals, and schools; and in institutions for the mentally ill and retarded. Serving for a one-year period, volunteers receive a living allowance and $50 a month.

Contact: *VISTA, Office of Economic Opportunity, Washington, D.C. 20506.*

7 EVALUATION:

An Integral Part of Any Effort to Educate the Disadvantaged

Why Evaluate? It is hardly enough to say that evaluation is a necessary legal condition for the fulfillment of Title I project requirements. (See box.) In truth, evaluation is – or should be – an important part of the process of education. In simple terms, evaluation is the estimation of the degree of progress toward a goal. Evaluation requires the collection of evidence, usually on a planned basis. Evaluation can help us diagnose pupils' strengths and weaknesses, prescribe plans of action based on the diagnoses, see where our educational plans are taking us, and set up revised educational plans.

Actually, we evaluate our work whether we realize it or not. Our aim ought to be to make our evaluations as sound and as appropriate as we can. We need good evaluation to feed back information and help us improve our work. The requirements of PL 89-10 lend support to what is recognized as sound educational practice: knowing what changes in pupils (in thoughts, actions, or feelings) are desired and determining to what extent these changes have been brought about.

Of Tests and Techniques

Since educational evaluation is a part of the teaching process it should contribute information *during* a project for deprived children as well as at the end so that it may lead to changed methods, changed objectives, or both. Note that Title I calls for "effective procedures, including provision for appropriate objective measurements." Objective tests, such as standardized tests, can be a part of the evaluation, if appropriate. However, the "objectivity" of such tests is of little value if the tests are not also "appropriate."

We have learned that many existing standardized tests are not suited for use with educationally deprived children – despite attractive titles and superficial appearances. It may be that for certain age levels of such children, the standardized test contains too many difficult items, or it contains too few items that measure a desired trait. In addition, authorities tell us that low-income groups typically do not like to work with traditional paper-and-pencil tests and may have a built-in bias against such tests. Standardized tests, then, should be selected and used only with caution.

There are, of course, other evaluative tools that can be used. Besides the standardized test, evaluation instruments include anecdotal records, case studies, check lists, diaries, files of sample materials, interviews, locally made tests, logs, observations, questionnaires, rating scales and sociograms. Probably still other evaluation instruments could be selected as appropriate for given projects.

In most cases, such instruments will be constructed by the people responsible for a particular program or project. The instruments can be objective, and they can have the added value that perhaps standardized tests cannot have: they can be made "appropriate" to the project.

It might be objected that some of the techniques, for example the anecdotal record, are time consuming in their implementation. However, a random (or other) sample of students could be selected for study if such a technique were to be used. In this case, the care with which the technique is used may contribute more to the validity of the findings than might be so if greater numbers of students were to be studied by this technique.

The evaluation techniques so far mentioned are suggested for *direct* measurement, or the evaluation of a project's primary objectives – that is, some change in pupils' thoughts, actions, or feelings. Indirect measures of these objectives can also be included as appropriate in the project evaluation. By indirect measures, we mean changes in the environment of the pupil, or related statistical information which by reasonable inference can give evidence of the degree of achievement of the project objectives. Included in these could be the changes that may have taken place in the staff, the facilities and equipment use, statistical counts such as absences, dropout rates, etc.

Providing for Evaluation

Part of the answer to the problem of time seems to lie in the planning of the evaluation. If one knows what to look for, that is, if the objectives are effectively stated, and if one has planned how to gather the evidence on those objectives, then much of the work of the evaluation has already been done.

Evaluation planning effort, as well as effort resulting in the construction of evaluation instruments, is a legitimate part of the project. Cost for the evaluation part of the project, including consultant fees, may be included in the project budget.

Another aspect of the problem of providing for evaluation is related to personnel. Who will fulfill the evaluation functions for the project?

School systems are urged to make creative use of personnel, both professional and non-professional, for evaluation purposes. Perhaps staff members, interested in evaluation, should be sought out and encouraged to take leadership for evaluation in the project. Possibly these people could be given exchanged or released time for project work.

Elements in the Project Evaluation

Planning for the evaluation of Title I project should be done almost as soon as the project itself is conceived. Early planning is important not only because ongoing evaluation feeds information back into the project for corrective and improvement uses, but also because certain essential information, such as the characteristics of pupils, may be obtainable only early in the project. Unless this collection of base-line data is planned for at the proper time, the data may be lost forever.

Certain elements are common to all sound educational evaluation. These include: a statement of the objectives of the project; a statement of the learning outcomes which the pupils would achieve if the project objectives were attained; the procedures employed for measuring or evaluating the attainment of the objectives together with some analysis of the use of these procedures; and a summary statement of conclusions and recommendations.

1. *Include a clear statement of the objectives.* This statement might be a brief recapitulation of the project objectives. The major purposes of such a statement are: (a) to help insure that the evaluation will relate integrally to the project and (b) to show how the outcomes to be measured or evaluated (see below) are logical extensions of the project objectives. The statement might include brief listings of expected subject matter and skill achievement, changes in attitude, interests, ideals, ways of thinking, work habits, and personal and social adaptability.

Examples of such objectives (not, of course, intended to represent those of an actual project) might be:

- The improvement of the readiness of pre-school and kindergarten youngsters for formal instruction.
- The improvement of the adjustment of pupils to the classroom situation.
- The improvement of the achievement of the students in such basic skills in the language arts as response to oral and written stimuli.
- The improvement of the esthetic background of students by participating in and appreciating experiences in the fine and performing arts.

A word of caution about the statement of objectives: objectives should not be omitted merely because they are not measurable, or, conversely, included merely because they are measurable. In other words, the objectives ought to be stated because they are important. Their measurability is also important, but this consideration should not eclipse the project itself.

2. *Include a clear statement of the desired learning outcomes.* For this statement, each of the project objectives can serve to suggest one or more descriptions of ways in which students can be observed to have attained — or not attained — that objective in some degree. If the desired learning outcome can be stated as an observable behavior, this is most desirable from the evaluation standpoint. Perhaps the outcome would be more accurately stated as a change in thinking or feeling. Even if the learning outcome is less tangible, it nevertheless should be explicitly stated.

Following through with our examples of objectives, such objectives might be translated into the following:

- The child has the ability to notice fine distinctions among common things and occurrences in his environment.
- The child is curious about, and takes a positive interest in, learning.
- The child notes essential details and generalizations in teacher explanations and pupil reports.
- The child enjoys the experience of artistic expression in a variety of media.

These sample statements do not, of course, exhaust the learning outcomes which might be drawn up from the objectives as stated above. It is possible that more than one learning outcome can be listed for each of the stated objectives in an actual project.

3. *State how and when each of these learning outcomes will be evaluated.* A careful plan for this ele-

Evaluation of Title I Projects: Legal Requirements . . .

•*From Title I, key excerpts:*

. . . effective procedures, including provision for appropriate objective measurements of educational achievement, will be adopted for evaluating at least annually the effectiveness of the programs in meeting the special educational needs of educationally deprived children;

. . . the local educational agency will make an annual report . . . to the State Educational Agency . . . including information relating to the educational achievement of students participating in programs carried out under this title . . .

–from Sec. 205 (a) (5) and Sec. 205 (a) (6), in part, of Title I

•*From federal regulations:*

(a) An application by a local educational agency shall describe the procedures and techniques to be utilized in making an evaluation at least annually of the effectiveness of its program under Title I of the Act in meeting the special educational needs of educationally deprived children, including appropriate objective measurements of educational achievement.

(b) The evaluation of the effectiveness of a program shall include an evaluation of the increase in educational opportunities afforded by such a program as well as by each of the projects comprising that program.

(c) The measurement of educational achievement under such a program shall include the measuring or estimating of educational deprivation of those children who will participate in the program and the comparing, at least annually, of the educational achievement of participating children with some objective standard of norm. The type of measurement used should give particular regard to the requirement on the part of the State that it report to the Commissioner on the effectiveness of the several programs of the participating local educational agencies in the State in improving the educational achievement of educationally deprived children.

(d) The evaluation of programs and projects should, consistent with the nature and extent of participation by children enrolled in private schools, be extended to participation of children enrolled in private schools.

–from Article 116.22, *Federal Register*, Regulations Under Titles I and II of P.L. 89-10, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Vol. 30, No. 178, Sept. 15, 1965, Washington, D.C.

•From the Connecticut Department of Education:

In implementing these legal requirements, the State Department of Education in turn has a two-part evaluation requirement. First, the plan for evaluation of the project must be set forth in the initial project proposal. Second, there must be a report to the state containing the results of the evaluation of the project as contained in the proposal, including a final evaluation.

ment will save time and effort and also ensure that the evaluation will be as relevant to the project as possible. The plan should include: identification of those instruments or techniques which will be used to measure each outcome; the times during the course of the project when techniques will be applied; and any other information that might be of use in describing the nature of the techniques. This last point might consider such matters the limitations of a given technique, and why it is used at a certain time and with a certain group of students.

It is possible that a given outcome may be evaluated in more than one way. If so, this is worth doing, particularly for the more crucial and/or "less tangible" objectives.

A chart can be helpful in setting up an evaluation plan. The one below illustrates how our fictitious set of outcomes might develop into an evaluation plan for our hypothetical project.

4. *Provide a thoughtful analysis of the data.* Considerable thought should go into planning for the presentation and analysis of the evaluative data. Such data should ultimately form the basis for a statement of conclusions, in which recommendations for continuation or termination of all or part of the project (and other recommendations suggested by the data) should be made.

The section that follows describes the five-point outline to be followed in the preparation of the *summary* report of the project. It should facilitate the task of providing "a thoughtful analysis of data."

Preparation of the Summary Evaluation Report

At the conclusion of each project, a summary evaluation report must be prepared and submitted to the Office of Program Development, State Department of Education. This task should be neither frightening nor burdensome if you have followed a systematic plan of evaluation by applying the suggestions presented below. Do not be disappointed if your results are less than your hopes. Only an objective and honest appraisal of your project can enable you to continue useful practices and to make desirable changes.

In the interest of consistency, certain topics should be covered in the summary evaluation report. As an aid to you and to the State Department of Education, the format below should be followed in the report preparation.

I. Description of project Group
  A. Number of pupils (if sampling or subgrouping are used in evaluation, please specify)
  B. Age range
  C. Grade level(s)
  D. Bases for inclusion in project

II. Brief Restatement of Project Objectives and Desired Learning Outcomes

III. Program of Evaluation
  A. Sequence
    1. Base-line data – what outcomes and when measured
    2. On-going measurements – what outcomes, when measured
    3. Final data
  B. Procedures employed
    1. If standardized tests, give title, form, level, publisher
    2. If techniques and instruments were developed specifically for this project, please describe and include sample copies
  C. Pupil characteristics and Behaviors Evaluated

IV. Results – Data Presentation and Analysis

V. Overall Evaluation of Project and Recommendations

Further Considerations in Evaluation Projects

Basic to the planning of a project is the provision for the evaluation of pupils in those learnings (actions, thoughts, or feelings) which the project set out to change. It is possible that some of these changes could be evaluated simply yet adequately. On the other hand, an adequate evaluation may require relatively sophisticated treatment.*

Levels: *Simple to complex.* Reasons other than the nature of the objective may determine the level of complexity at which an objective is to be evaluated. The time available for planning, implementing, and summarizing the evaluation may be an important factor in making a decision on whether to attempt a simple or more complex evaluation. The size, age level, and other characteristics of the group being studied may be another important factor. The availability of staff to devote the appropriate skills may be still another. Perhaps a guiding principle here is to set up the job as it *should* be done – and then come as near to doing that job as the local conditions permit.

Following are examples of levels of evaluation plans, arranged in approximate order from simple to complex.

Level one:	Change in the pupils is compared with an absolute standard (100 percent). Basic data consist of simple numerical counts.
Example A.	Proportion of eligible 10th, 11th, and 12th grade students enrolled in a work study program.
Example B.	Proportion of former students en-

**Note:* Much of the material in this section, particularly the discussion of levels, has been adapted from the USOE's recent draft of *Guidelines: Special Programs for Educationally Deprived Children.* In that document, the "levels" were treated as "designs."

rolling in selected post secondary educational programs.

Example C. Proportion of parents accepting and keeping conferences with teachers.

Example D. Proportion of students retained in school between the 11th and 12th grades.

In all these examples, it is assumed that the standard is 100 percent and that the closer the results are to 100 percent, the more effective the experience has been.

Level two: Change in the pupils is reported without external comparison data.

Example A. To evaluate a second grade reading project, a comparison can be made of scores earned on a standardized reading test administered in the fall as the project gets underway and again at the end of the project year.

Example B. To evaluate a program in which the pupil-teacher ratio has been reduced at each of the several grade levels and language arts and arithmetic supervisors employed, a comparison can be made of scores for each grade level and for each subtest from a comprehensive achievement test administered at the beginning and end of the project period.

Level three: Change in the pupils is compared with a normative group.

Example A. When a nationally standardized achievement test is administered to a group participating in a Title I project, the change in achievement of students in the project can be compared with expected change based on published norms for the non-Title I group in the nation, region, or locality.

A CHART SHOWING HOW A SET OF OUTCOMES MIGHT DEVELOP INTO AN EVALUATION PLAN

Learning Outcome	Type of Instrument or Technique	Constructed By	When Used In Project	With Whom Used	Remarks
The child has the ability to notice fine distinctions among common things and occurrences in his environment	Anecdotal Records	Teacher	Beginning, Middle Stages, End (at least 3)	A sampling of 10 children	Sample might be selected on basis that the children are the most in need of improvement in this objective
The child is curious about, and takes a positive interest in, learning	Rating Scales	Guidance Counselor Evaluation Director	Beginning and End	All children	Can be quantified, made more useful if two or three raters can be brought in to make observations
The child notes essential details and generalizations in teacher explanation and pupil reports	Informal Objective Test	Teacher, collaborating with Guidance Counselor or Eval. Director	Early in project, again at end	All children	Test may be all paper-and-pencil or a teacher "report" with paper-and-pencil response, depending upon groups
The child enjoys the experience of artistic expression in a variety of media	Anecdotal Records	Teacher	As Observed	All children	Teacher should make sure that there is at least one notation about each child, recording his apparent interest and his participation in at least one medium

Level four: Change in the pupils is compared with change in a control group.

(A control group as used here is one similar to the Title I group with respect to variables important to the specific project or program such as ability, socio-economic level, etc. Ideally, the students would be randomly assigned to the Title I and the control groups but such assignment is not necessary when it can be assumed that the students in both groups are equally prepared for the project.)

Example A. Both groups may be required to take a comprehensive achievement test in October to establish a baseline and be required to repeat the test in May. The baseline test should be administered before or at the time the Title I project is started.

Example B. Change in attendance record in a Title I project school may be compared and contrasted with change in the attendance record of the children in the control school during the same period.

Example C. Change in kinds and severity of adjustment problems reported in a Title I group may be compared and contrasted with control group data obtained during the same period.

Example D. Last year's class in the same school setting may be designated as the control group, provided that the children have comparable backgrounds and the same evaluation devices were used to measure change at the appropriate time during the "control" year. The group in the Title I project may then be compared to last year's class.

For more detailed suggestions on these and higher levels of evaluation plans, we recommend the *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, in particular pages 171 to 220 (see bibliography). This reference is unquestioned as the authority in experimental design in education.

Which methods for measuring which outcomes? The evaluation of subject matter achievement will be different in kind from the evaluation of a change in attitude. Evaluator X may assess the growth in oral language competency by one method, while Evaluator Y develops another technique to measure the same outcome. Methods and techniques of evaluation, then, will vary as project objectives vary, and as the evaluators themselves vary. As school people gain experiences in the project, they will probably develop new ways of evaluating progress.

Following are some suggestions, with a few brief illustrations, for techniques of evaluation, organized according to type of learning outcome. As with other listings in this chapter, *this is not intended to be a complete list, either of outcome types or of techniques.* Adequate treatment of these matters, of course, can be found in good textbooks and other authoritative references.

1. *Subject matter and skill achievement*
    - Appropriate standardized tests
    - Teacher-made objective tests
    - Teacher-made performance tests

2. *Changes in attitude*
    - Observation (particularly by outside observers)
    - Questionnaires, to be answered by pupils or parents
    - Rating scales
    - Dropout counts (changes, comparisons)
    - Records of parent involvement in school-sponsored projects
    - Case studies
    - Anecdotal records
    - Attendance records
    - Records of participation in an activity
3. *Interest*
    - Questionnaires
    - Attendance records
    - Case studies
    - Anecdotal records
    - Dropout counts
    - Records of parent involvement
    - Tabulations (such as average number of books read per pupil)
    - Rating scales
    - Checklists
4. *Ideals*
    - Ancedotal records
    - Observation
    - Pupils' writings

5. *Ways of thinking*
    - Appropriate standardized tests (rare)
    - Teacher-made tests
    - Rating scales
    - Pupils' writings

6. *Work habits*
    - Observation
    - Anecdotal records
    - Rating scales
    - Checklists

7. *Personal and social adaptability*
    - Dropout information
    - Attendance records
    - Anecdotal records
    - Rating scales
    - Pupils' writings
    - Sociograms
    - Case studies

Some Good and Bad Practices

Space does not permit us to deal with all of the desirable practices to be embraced and with all the technical pitfalls to be avoided in a project evaluation. Such encouragements and admonitions are found in abundance in references such as those suggested in the bibliography. Yet we can comment briefly on a few points raised by some of the early project proposals.

Good: Even though an objective cannot be stated in measurable terms, state it. The more important thing here is to face up to the objective. Sweeping it under the carpet because it apparently can't be measured distorts the nature of the project – and also postpones the possibility of some solution of the assessment problem.

Bad: To try to measure growth in creative work or artistic judgment is probably a waste of time, Indirect evidence of such growth, such as records of interest and participation, are as near as we can presently expect to come in evaluating this kind of behavior.

Good: Before any kind of testing is undertaken, the person administering the test must be sure that reasonably good rapport has been established and that the children are motivated to do their best. This may be a big order, but unless these conditions are met, even a test assumed to be appropriate will not reliably measure the intended behaviors.

Bad: In noting behaviors on anecdotal records, personal reactions sometimes creep into the account. Thus the anecdotal record becomes subjective, and perhaps the behavior is interpreted prematurely. It is preferable to record the incident, avoiding any value statements unless such statements are separately recorded and identified as such.

Good: Use standardized tests whenever appropriate, but do not rely solely on their results since almost inevitably their built-in cultural bias will "mask out" some achievers. *What such tests can do is indicate a higher performance level for certain disadvantaged children that other kinds of ratings suggest.*

Bad: Merely because an objective can be measured, there is often a temptation to include it in the statement of project objectives. This is a case of distortion of value and the temptation must be resisted.

Good: Since it has often been found that given educational practices affect different groups in differing degrees, subclassification of the pupils (according to sex, ability, etc.) for evaluation may be desirable.

Bad: Obtaining the baseline data too late in the project may be the greatest handicap for effective evaluation. This is why sound planning and early data gathering are so crucial to the success of the project.

Opportunity for Improvement

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, and other federal and state laws recently enacted, give us an opportunity to take bold steps forward to better education. In evaluation, as in other phases of the instruction process, we need to do our best to work with what we have – and to improve as we go along.

This effort will require the kind of cooperation described by the NEA Council on Instruction in its booklet, *Toward Better Evaluation of Learning:* "Most significant in evaluation is the involvement of pupils, classroom teachers, parents, school administrators, test specialists, and others in a cooperative process of goal setting, activity planning, and evidence gathering. Such cooperation can result in a basic and essential strengthening of the very core of the educational enterprise. Education is not merely the acquisition of knowledge, to be evaluated by tests of recall. It is a process whereby individuals acquire skills and capacities for problem solving, personal and social improvement, and purposeful and effective living."

APPENDIX A:

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APPENDIX B:

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> *"Open your schools to the promise of these new programs. I hope that not a single day will be lost. For in education, the time we waste today can mean a life wasted tomorrow."*
>
> –Lyndon B. Johnson